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**MEDITERRANEAN SEA  
ENVIRONMENTAL ATLAS  
FOR ITASS (U)**

October 1969

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**OCEAN SCIENCE PROGRAM  
MAURY CENTER FOR OCEAN SCIENCE  
Department of the Navy  
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ENVIRONMENTAL ATLAS  
FOR PLANE (U)

October 1, 1959

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FOREWORD (S)

This Atlas is a departure from the usual approach to presenting environmental and acoustic data in that it was tailored from its conception solely to support the deployment of the Interim Towed Array Sonar System (ITASS) in the Mediterranean Sea. It is the intent of this Atlas to provide sufficient environmental and acoustic information for the optimal deployment of the ITASS, and to provide a source of general information on environmental effects to those charged with its operations.

This Atlas was requested by Manager, ASW Systems Project Office; compiled by the Undersea Surveillance Oceanographic Center of the Naval Oceanographic Office with technical direction by the Maury Center for Ocean Science, and financed by the Long Range Acoustic Propagation (LRAP) Project.

It is considered that this document is an interim Atlas designed to fill an urgent need. It is intended to upgrade and reissue the Atlas based on experience in its use.

Users of this Atlas are invited to forward their comments to Deputy Assistant Oceanographer for Ocean Science, Office of Naval Research (Code 102-06), Navy Department, Washington, D. C. 20360.

J. B. HERSEY  
Director  
Maury Center for Ocean Science

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## INTRODUCTION

(S) This atlas provides charts and tables needed for the operation of an Infrared Underwater Sound System (PIRS) in the Mediterranean Sea, and describes how the system may affect its operation. The atlas provides graphic information on bottom topography, surface winds, sea swell, surface and subsurface currents, sound velocity, convergence zones, acoustic propagation, transmission loss, and direct noise, and the application of this information. Transient environmental parameters are described briefly or suspended.

(S) Infrared effects on sound detection over ranges greater than 100 miles are discussed as well as how the experimental PIRS equipment can be used most effectively.

## THE MEDITERRANEAN ENVIRONMENT

BATHYMETRY AND PHYSIOGRAPHY

(U) The bathymetry of the Mediterranean Sea is shown in Figure 1 by means of 100 fathom contours which are based upon an assumed velocity of sound in sea water of 4800 ft./sec. However, a nomogram (Figure 2) provides separate depth corrections in four regions of the Mediterranean Sea for variations of vertical sound velocity from the assumed values. The following is a brief summary of the bathymetric features.

(U) The floor of the Strait of Gibr. Iber is a sill, which divides the Mediterranean Sea from the Atlantic Ocean, and has a limiting depth of approximately 175 fathoms. The bottom relief is extremely rugged. In the Alboran Sea there is no break to distinguish between the continental shelf and the slope. The basin floor lies at about 700 fathoms, and a maximum depth of about 850 fathoms occurs at the eastern end of the basin where it narrows to a submarine valley which extends into the Cyprian Tectonic Basin.

(D) The floor of the Peloponnesian Basin is relatively smooth and has a depth of 1400 to 1500 fathoms. The continental shelf is narrow to non-existent west of Crete, but the maximum depth of the basin exceeds 1800 fathoms.

(E) The floor of the Tyrrhenian Basin is irregular, but in some places at depths of 1800 fathoms or more it is relatively flat. Numerous pools and knobs rise from the basin floor and slopes. The Tyrrhenian Basin is separated from the Ionian Basin by a sill with a depth of slightly less than 200 fathoms in the Strait of Sicily and local depths of less than 50 fathoms in the Strait of Messina.

(F) The continental shelf reaches a maximum width of about 500 n.m. east of Tunisia. There are northeast-southwest trending troughs on the continental shelf between Sicily and Tunisia where depths are about 700 to 800 fathoms.

(G) The Adriatic Sea lies mostly on the continental shelf. The floor of the Adriatic Basin is 600 to 700 fathoms deep and has little local relief. The maximum depth of 765 fathoms is in the Strait of Otranto adjacent to the sill which separates the Adriatic from the Ionian Basin. Limiting depths on the sill are approximately 450 fathoms.

(H) The floor of the Ionian Basin has considerable local relief consisting of scarps, and very large and small elevations, depressions, and valleys.

(I) Most of the Levantine Basin floor is mildly undulating with several relatively flat regions. Several deep depressions lie off Turkey and Rhodes, three of which exceed 2000 fathoms.

(J) The physiography of the Mediterranean may be divided logically into western and eastern regions. The western region, west of Sicily, consists of continental margins descending to abyssal plains formed by turbidity flows (Figure 5). The eastern region is much more complex structurally and physiographically, in many respects being atypical of the usual oceanic divisions. An example of this is a series of basins paralleling and oblique the Mediterranean Ridge. Tectonic activity in this region has reportedly defined abyssal plains of the past similar to those which occur in the western Mediterranean. There are, however, many small abyssal plains in the deepest parts. Most are a few miles across.

## SECTION

### FIGURES

(b) Six wind roses compiled from U. S. 1010 mb era records are shown for each month in 5° of longitude. In Figures 4 through 59 winds, sea and swell are assembled by month and season. The winter months are January, February, March; the spring months are April, May, June; summer consists of July, August, September; and autumn of October, November and December.

(c) The winds are distributed along 8 direction and 5 speed groups and plotted to the nearest whole percent. To determine the percentage of winds from a particular direction the total length of the arc facing that direction is measured and compared with the rose scale in the legend. The total frequency of wind falling within a certain speed group may be estimated by measuring the length of each speed group on the bar graph located at the base of each rose.

(d) An eastward extension of the Azores High is the predominant climatic feature in the western Mediterranean during most of the year. In winter the Siberian High occasionally extends westward to cover most of Europe leading to the formation of low pressure cells in the sea west off southern France and northern Italy. These lows are partly responsible for the greater number of strong winds and gales reported during the cold season. When a cold high is located over the interior of France, persistent strong winds blow out to sea through the river valleys of southern France. In the Gulf of Lion wind speeds in excess of 40 knots occur 15 percent or more of the time in winter.

(e) In the eastern Mediterranean, the eastern extension of the cold high around the deep thermal low in Iran and Pakistan is the predominant climatic feature of summer. Its greatest development occurs during July and August causing the northeasterly winds to be stronger and more persistent than in any other months.

(f) In winter low pressure centers enter the western Mediterranean through the Strait of Gibraltar and usually cross the Iberian Sea, the northern Tyrrhenian Sea, Italy, and the Adriatic Sea. A secondary storm path extends from the upper Tyrrhenian Sea through the Sicily of Naples and into the Ionian Sea.

(6) In winter the eastern Mediterranean is affected by high pressure that prevails over the European continent. The contrast between cold European air and warm African air causes many cyclones to form. Other cyclones enter the area from the western Mediterranean. These lows cause increased precipitation and variability of wind direction and more frequent gales during the cold season although winds seldom exceed 40 knots. The spring transition season in the western Mediterranean is characterized by greater persistence of northwest winds and increased thunderstorm and shower activity followed by a rapid decrease in cloudiness and in the amount and intensity of precipitation. The frequency of 40-knot winds decreases to about 3 percent in the Gulf of Lion and is extremely low elsewhere in the western Mediterranean.

(7) In the eastern Mediterranean in the spring transition season an increase of northwesterly winds and cyclonic activity is followed by a decrease in the amount and intensity of precipitation.

(8) Clearness of any type is rare in the western Mediterranean in summer and there is almost no precipitation except for thunderstorm activity in the north. Cyclone activity is extremely rare. In the Gulf of Lion about 1 percent of the winds are greater than 40 knots. Winds of this strength seldom occur elsewhere in the western Mediterranean.

(9) In summer there is almost no precipitation in the eastern Mediterranean except for thunderstorm activity in the northern Aegean Sea and other near shore regions in the northern part of the area.

(10) In fall shower and thunderstorm activity increases as the first cool air masses arrive in the western Mediterranean. Cyclones enter the area by way of Gibraltar and the Rhone Valley and cyclogenesis occurs in the Ligurian and northern Tyrrhenian Seas. Winds greater than 40 knots increase in frequency.

(11) During fall, shower and thunderstorm activity increase in the eastern Mediterranean beginning in the Ionian Sea in October and reaching the south-eastern Mediterranean in December. Cyclones enter the area from the western Mediterranean and the Adriatic Sea.

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SEA AND SWELL

(i) The surface of the ocean is described by the terms sea and swell. Sea refers to waves caused by the local wind, whereas swell refers to waves that have propagated beyond the influence of the generating wind. The direction of swell is largely independent of the local wind but may coincide with it. Both sea and swell frequently are present at the same time although the presence of one may mask the other. Although the surface of the ocean is not a series of rhythmic waves, it is possible to observe the direction, height, length and period of the more conspicuous waves making up sea and swell.

(ii) Sea and swell roses show the direction and frequency of occurrence of various wave height ranges, and barographs show the frequency of various sea height ranges for all directions. These figures represent accumulated observations for each month in 5° quadrangles. Summary scales show predominant sea direction (from which the sea is coming) and constancy. The quality and quantity of sea and swell data are sufficient to make these charts applicable.

SURFACE CURRENTS

(i) Surface currents in the western Mediterranean are determined principally by the prevailing winds and surface evaporation. Throughout the year surface water from the Atlantic Ocean moves through the Strait of Gibraltar into the western Mediterranean and is driven generally in a counter-clockwise direction by the prevailing northwesterly winds. Southerly winds that occur for varying periods in winter interrupt this counter-clockwise flow. When the wind from any one quarter has been strong and continuous, drift currents are set up. During gales, current speeds of 4 to 5 knots may occur. Even though the east can prevail, or find the west can prevail the inflow of

## SUMMARY

Abrupt surface water, depending on the "Le Corbeau" force. Wind driven currents can affect water masses down to 100 feet but are negligible below this depth, however wind drift prevails in such because wind speeds in this range from Beaufort force 0 to 3. Strong winds from the west in summer and the east in winter can develop appreciable cross currents.

(U) Rapid evaporation of surface water in the western Mediterranean, particularly in the northern part of the Iberian and Ligurian Seas, produces surface water of high salinity which sinks and is replaced by less saline Atlantic surface water that flows east through the Strait of Gibraltar. The salt balance between the Mediterranean and the Atlantic is maintained by a bottom countercurrent of high salinity that flows west of the Mediterranean through the Strait of Gibraltar. Mixing occurs between the surface and bottom currents forming a transition zone which has strong vertical movements and weak, variable currents.

(U) Strong tidal currents superimposed on the surface and subsurface currents reduce the inflow when they set from the Mediterranean into the Atlantic Ocean, and increase the inflow when they set from the Atlantic into the Mediterranean.

(U) The most persistent part of the prevailing surface current in the western basin flows east between Gibraltar and Tunisia where about 50 to 65 percent of all current observations show a set between northeast and southeast, and of these most show a set due east. Transient westerly sets are caused by easterly gales. The most variable currents (in direction) occur in the central parts of the basin. There is a westerly return current along the north slope.

(U) The surface current sets southeastward into the eastern Mediterranean through the Strait of Sicily at speeds ranging from 0.2 to 1.0 knot. In the Malta channel the current is influenced by the wind but generally sets east-southeast at 1.2 knots. Along the south coast of Sicily the southeast setting current is weak except when accelerated by east to northwest winds. During strong southerly winds a northeast setting current may occur along the south coast of Sicily and during gale it may attain a speed of 2.0 knots. The

counter-clockwise circulation of the eastern Mediterranean deflects the 0.1 to 1.0 knot southeast setting currents off Turkey and Egypt toward the coast. Except for a corner current in the GULF of SIME, the surface currents set eastward along the coast of eastern Libya and into the Levantine basin at speeds of 0.4 to 0.8 knot.

(B) In the Levantine basin the surface currents set east at 0.4 to 1.0 knot paralleling the coast of Egypt. However, off the coast of Libya and Egypt this current may set westward for brief periods under the influence of strong southerly winds that occur most frequently in winter. The surface current parallels the coast around the Levantine basin at speeds of 0.4 to 1.0 knot off Israel and Lebanon, 1.0 to 1.5 knots between Syria and Cyprus and 0.4 to 1.0 knot off Turkey and between Crete and Turkey into the Aegean Sea. Part of this current veers south to scatter slowly around the west tip of Cyprus at speeds of 0.2 to 0.6 knot and completes the counter-clockwise movement of the Levantine basin. North of Crete a portion of the southward flowing Aegean current divides. One branch sets eastward at speeds of 0.2 to 0.7 knot, part rejoining the northward currents in the Dodecanese and part passing around the eastern tip of Crete and setting westward south of the island. The other branch veers westward at speeds of 0.2 to 0.7 knot between the coast of Greece and Crete and continues northward along the west coast of Greece toward the Ionian Sea.

(C) The surface current which enters the Ionian Sea from the Aegean Sea also divides. One branch flows northward along the western coast of Greece at speeds of 0.2 to 0.6 knot and joins the counter-clockwise circulation of the Adriatic Sea. The other branch veers southwestward and joins the southeast flowing currents in the Ionian Sea.

(D) This branch completes the counter-clockwise circulation of the eastern Mediterranean Sea. The prevailing circulation pattern of the eastern Mediterranean

Sea does not exhibit a steady flow. Currents even at 1° variation in the degree of variability cannot be predicted.

#### SUBSURFACE CURRENTS

(I) The direction and speed of subsurface currents in the Mediterranean Sea were computed from the difference in the specific volume of the water at different densities and at different levels within the water column. The differing specific volume values were computed for several levels and for several seasons. The contours indicate the speed and direction of the current at the upper level, or depth, referred to on the figure. The lower level is the assumed level of no current motion (Figure 41 et seq.).

(II) The subsurface current profiles are the only ones available and represent measured current velocities and directions to about 300 meters below the surface. The profiles indicate current velocity in knots. Mean current directions at 5, 10, 25, 50, 100, 200, and 300 meters are given by abbreviated compass directions: ESE = East South East. The profiles are grouped into four seasons and identified by month. Geographical location of each current profile is indicated by a number keyed to the chart (Figure 46 et seq.).

#### SOUND VELOCITY STRUCTURE

(I) Sound velocity variations in the Mediterranean Sea are shown seasonally by mean sound velocity profiles in selected one-degree quadrangles. Typical monthly sound velocity profiles are shown for each of four major basins (Figures 53-57).

(II) Variation of surface sound velocity from year to year in the eastern Mediterranean is not significantly greater than the possible variations within a single month. Maximal surface sound velocity variations in the eastern Mediterranean occur in the summer months and are commonly as much as 15 to 20 feet per second (fps). During summer the isothermal layer depth varies from 6 to 100 feet. Variation in sound velocity during the winter months is not likely to exceed 5 fps near the surface. Variation decreases with depth, and seasonal

## SECTION I

Offshore of 13° E. Lat., 500 m.<sup>2</sup> (600 feet) where changes occur slowly over 6 months to a year. At this depth, variation with location within one of the long latitudes should not exceed about 5 fpm. The total annual sound velocity variation decreases to about 3 fpm at 1000 feet, 2 at 2000, 1 at 3000, 0.5 at 5000 and should be less than 0.5 fpm below 8000 feet. Surface sound velocities vary about 5 fpm in August. The depth of the isothermal layer is highly variable during the period from April to August and has variations of about 50 feet through December. The depth of the sound channel axis (point of minimum velocity) is most uncertain during the spring. Local surface warming can give an axis depth of 20 feet in January through March, although this is quite rare.

(B) Variability of sound velocity in the western Mediterranean is about ±5 fpm in fall and winter and ±10 fpm in spring and summer for the upper 100 feet. These limits decrease gradually to the 600 foot limits of the deep profiles. A mixed layer at the surface is most common during the fall and winter, but an occasional warming period can produce a temporary shallow negative gradient layer characteristic of early spring. Warming during spring and early summer makes negative-gradient surface layers most common, with occasional surface mixing due to high winds or short cooling periods. After mid-August the shallower mixed layer, characteristic of early fall, is more likely to exist.

(C) In the surface, isovelocity layers are generally only 50 to 60 feet deep coinciding approximately with the surface mixed isothermal layer depth. Little cyclonic activity occurs in this region during the summer. The shallow isothermal layers result principally from correction with a minimum of wind mixing. Mixing is aided by high insolation and evaporation rates which create very stable negative temperature and sound velocity gradients below the layer depth. Similar conditions prevail approximately between April and October.

(D) The climatology of the Mediterranean is such that variable storm conditions occur in the winter. With the onset of cyclonic activity in October, the cloud cover is d wind increases and the rate of insolation

#### State 1

decade reaching in a decade of ten years to 10°C. Increased wind mixing combined with convective mixing results in a deepening of the isothermal layer to 300 feet or more by January. Warmer conditions prevail roughly between November and March. Changes in the thermal structure of the Mediterranean Sea last from 24 to 48 hours after a storm.

#### SOUND PROPAGATION

##### INTRODUCTION

(5) This section describes how the ocean environment affects the acoustic operation of ITASS and discusses a rationale for the best effective deployment of this sensor in relation to depth and geographic location for various parts of the Mediterranean Sea. It contains an elementary account of sound detection to ranges of well over 100 nautical miles. It provides the background for understanding the sound propagation curves used as the basis for choice of best depth for the ITASS. Measurements of ambient noise in the Mediterranean are reviewed.

##### THE SOUND EQUATION

(6) The passive detection equation can be written in a simplified form as follows (in decibels):

$$SE = SL - TL - NL + RD + AG$$

where , SE = Signal Excess

SL = Average Source Level

TL = Transmission Loss

NL = Noise Level at the sensor

RD = Recognition Differential (this is nearly equivalent to Detection Threshold)

AG = Array Gain

SUPPLY

The source level (SL) stated dB relative to 1 microbar ( $\text{dyn./cm}^2$ ), is extrapolated to a range of one yard from measurements at greater distances.

(S) Source levels of foreign submarines are currently established by taking numerous sets of targets of opportunity. These measurements are not taken under ideal or controlled conditions which means that they contain a degree of uncertainty. These uncertainties include target factors such as change in speed, aspect, depth and machinery modes of operation. Such factors must be taken into account in the establishment of a source level value for a given class of target and conditions of operation. Another uncertainty is the spectrum of the sound on which the source level is based. It is usual to assume that the source is a line in the spectrum of the target having a width less than the narrowest filter in the signal processor. In applications of tested arrays, at least a part of the test program will include detection employing a 1072K processor capable of 1/6 Hz. The target line can be considerably broader than 1 Hz, and this fact must be allowed for in making detection range estimates. For example, a target line 2 Hz wide should be compared with a noise level, NL, which is 3 dB larger than the spectrum level usually employed.

(W) Transmission loss is a complicated function of range and, in addition, fluctuates in a manner that can best be described statistically. It will be covered in considerable detail in a later section.

(N) The noise at the sensor (NL) consists of natural sounds of the sea, ship traffic, floor-noise and the self noise of the testing ship. Below 200 Hz shipping dominates the ambient noise spectrum while above 200 Hz sea state and occasionally marine animals dominate the spectrum. This frequency limit is not exact, and exceptions to the above generalizations abound. Nevertheless, shipping is a dominant cause of low-frequency ambient noise with sea state being the principal cause of high frequency noise.

(C) The coefficient of noise statistics in the sonar detection equation depends on the nature of the target signal and on the signal processing and display. The spectrum level of noise (i.e. noise in a band 1 Hz wide) is the

made entry into the detection equation, for RL including those cases where detection of a single line of the target spectrum is sought. This is the level in a band 1 Hz wide at the anticipated frequency of the target. A variability of  $\pm 5\text{dB}$  should be expected in the noise spectrum level.

(S) The recognition differential (RD), is a characteristic of the operator as well as the signal processing and detection components. It can be defined as the amount by which the signal level exceeds the noise when there is a 50% probability of detection. RD is dependent on the properties of the signal and the noise. It generally becomes smaller as other terms become less favorable for detection. Values assigned to recognition differential are best determined from actual field experience, i.e. measurements at sea. The assigned value is the result of averaging a large number of sample cases. A variability of  $\pm 3\text{dB}$  can be expected.

(S) The array gain (AG) can be defined as the ratio, in decibels, of the signal-to-noise ratio of the array to the signal-to-noise ratio of a single element. The array gain of ITASS is a function of several variables such as directivity of the noise, the beam within which the target appears, and the bearing of the target within the beam. Array gain figures are normally based on isotropic noise; i.e. total noise at a point is composed of noise arriving from all directions with equal intensity. This is a reasonable assumption, in the horizontal plane, for noise generated by breaking waves caused by local winds; i.e. in the spectrum above 200 to 500 Hz. It may be a rather poor assumption where noise is generated by a half a dozen or more ships which may be clustered or scattered in bearing from the array. Array gain assumes that a coherent signal is received along the length of the array, which is also an idealization. For these reasons, AG is not a dependable factor. It does provide an approximate upper limit on performance estimates. A variability of  $\pm 5\text{dB}$  can be expected from the average value of AG.

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(S) All the terms in the sooty equation are variable. Therefore, the longer the time available for seeking the target signal, the better the chances are for the fluctuations which occur to combine in a favorable manner to give a detection. This means that averaging the received signals to smooth out fluctuations is not necessarily advantageous. Estimates of these fluctuations or inaccuracies are as follows:

SL  $\pm$  5 db

TL  $\pm$  5 db to 60 miles;  $\pm$  3 db beyond 60 miles

RL  $\pm$  5 db

RH  $\pm$  3 db

AG  $\pm$  3 db

(S) These numbers are an estimate of the degree to which the observed data will tend to spread about an average value. Statistically, when one adds together a series of terms each of which has its own degree of uncertainty, the result has a degree of uncertainty which is approximated by the square root of the sum of the squares of the individual uncertainties. For the sooty equation:

$$\Delta S = SL - TL + RL - RD + AG$$

The combined uncertainty ( $\sigma$ ) in signal excess (at ranges greater than 60 m.i.) is given by:

$$\sigma^2 = 5^2 + 3^2 + 5^2 + 3^2 + 3^2$$

$$\sigma^2 = .25 + 9 + 25 + 9 + 9$$

$$\sigma = \sqrt{77}$$

$$\sigma = 8.8 \text{ db}$$

The statistical interpretation of this variability figure is that the observed signal excess will be within  $\pm 8.8$  db of the computed value approximately three fourths of the time.

(U) There are no measures of environmental effects on SL, AG and RH even though we know them to be environmentally affected. The uncertainties stated above are empirically based and will have to be altered as our experience grows.

## SOUND RAY DIAGRAMS

(9) At a distance from a source, sound rays diverge with the dissipation of the source, sound spreads out as though it had been generated at a point. Thus, a few miles from a ship or explosion, its sound behaves in this way. Because sound speed varies in the ocean, the sound is bent by the water as it spreads out just as air, glass, (or water) bends light. This phenomenon is called refraction, and can be modeled by rays of sound which trace out the path followed by the sound. The separation of neighboring sound rays is inversely proportional to the intensity of the sound. The bending and spreading of rays can be computed precisely and rapidly through regions where sound speed varies both vertically and horizontally through the ocean. Since sound spreads in all directions from its source, some of the sound strikes both the surface and the bottom. These rays reflect partially and continue to travel by successive reflections at the surface and bottom. Some of the energy striking these surfaces is transmitted into the air or down into the earth. Much of this transmitted energy is lost to the ocean, thereby sound may be reflected back by rock layers below the bottom. These paths are illustrated in the following series of sketches:

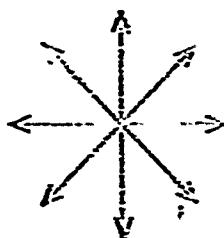


Figure A-1. Divergence of Sound Rays - sound goes outward from a source in all directions. (9)

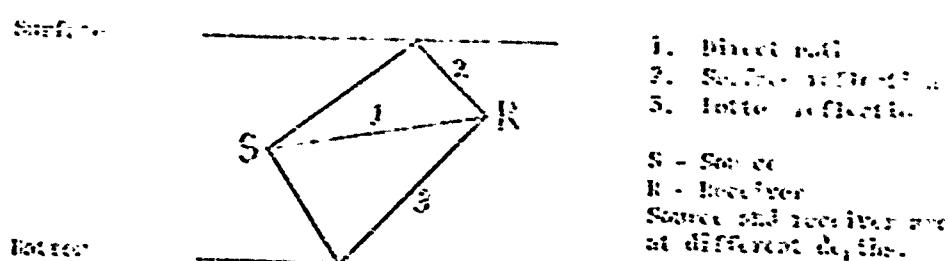


Figure A-2. Reflection of Sound Rays. (ii)

- 1. Direct path
  - 2. Surface reflection
  - 3. Bottom reflection
- S - Source  
R - Receiver  
Source and receiver are at different depths.

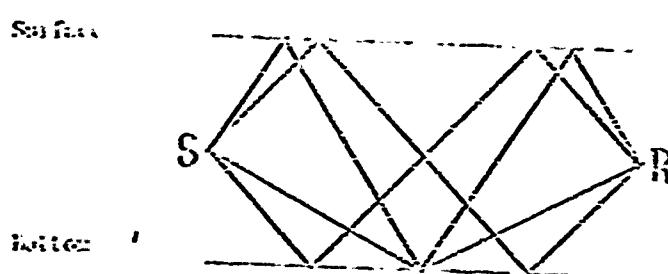


Figure A-3. Reflection of Sound Rays with One Bottom Bounce. (iii)

These are four paths by which sound from a source (S) reaches a receiver (R) with one bottom bounce.

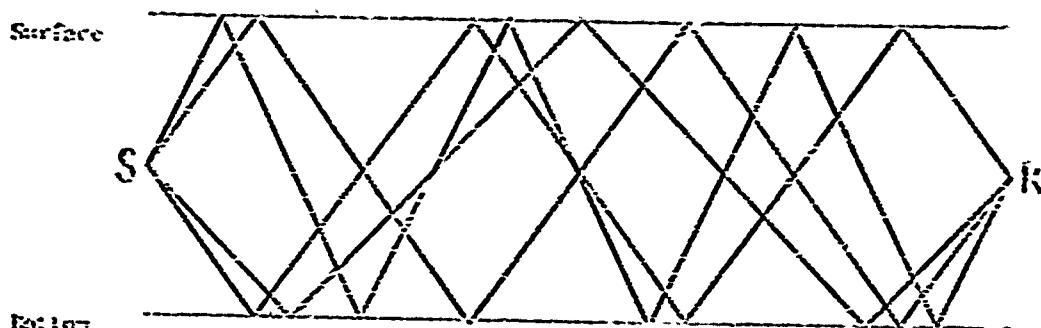


Figure A-4. Reflection of Sound Rays with Two Bottom Bounces. (iv)

There are also four paths by which sound from a source (S) reaches a receiver (R) after two bottom bounces.

(iv) This type of sketch could be extended indefinitely to show that there are four paths from source to receiver for any number of bottom bounces. The

sound received? In theory, this must be regarded as related indirectly in principle. Thus the average transmission loss in dB for a given bottom bounce is 6 dB less than that due to a single direct path. Neglect of this term is a common mistake.

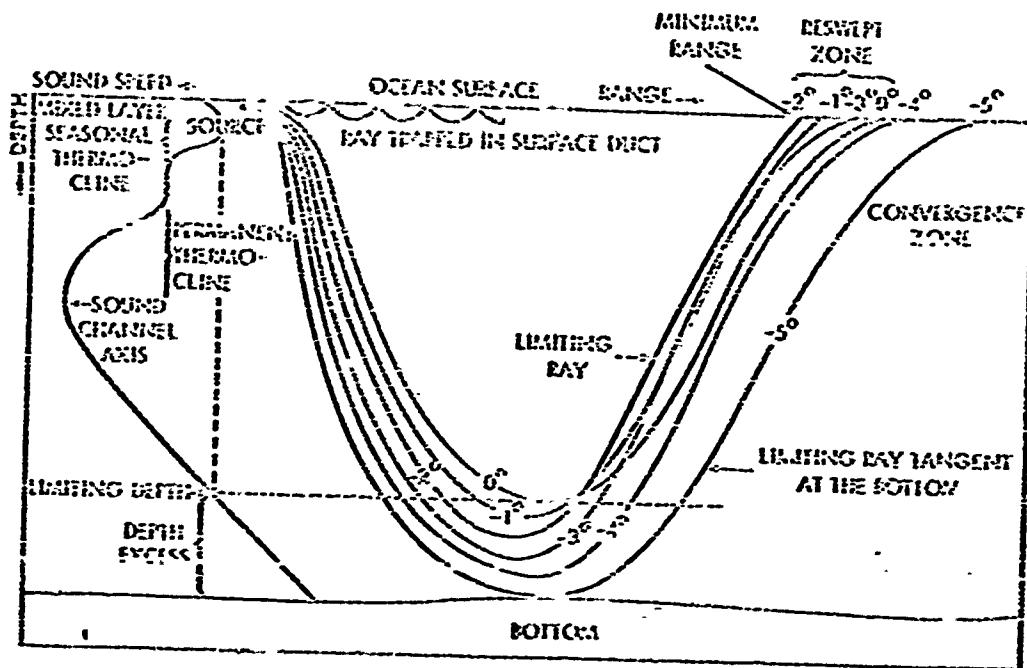


Figure A-8. Refraction of Sound Rays (II)

(II) The above figure illustrates how sound rays are refracted according to constraints imposed on them by the sound velocity in the water.

(II) The sound travelling along each path in the previous sketches is spreading according to the constraints imposed upon it by the sound velocity in the water, being partially absorbed by the water itself and partially scattered by material distributed through the water, and losing energy to the surface and to the bottom upon reflection. The intensity associated with each ray can be computed, and the total intensity at a point can be computed by adding the contributions from all of the rays.

(ii) The vertical bending of sound paths by the variation in sound speed in the ocean limits where sound energy goes. In order to understand these effects, a few simple facts about the ocean are needed. The ocean waters are layered and consist of very extensive horizontal sheets within which the physical and chemical properties such as temperature, sound speed, salinity, oxygen content, etc., are nearly the same. Sound speed increases with increasing temperature, salinity and pressure so that, other things being equal, high temperature, high salinity and high pressure implies high sound speed. In Mediterranean winter, most of the sea, except for the southeastern part, is nearly the same temperature, top to bottom, close to 15 degrees centigrade (58.4° F). Thus, sound speed increases nearly uniformly from surface to bottom. Sound paths from a source at any depth are bent toward the region of least sound speed, the surface. There they are reflected and continue following paths that are approximately segments of circles interrupted by successive surface reflections, as shown in Figure A-6.

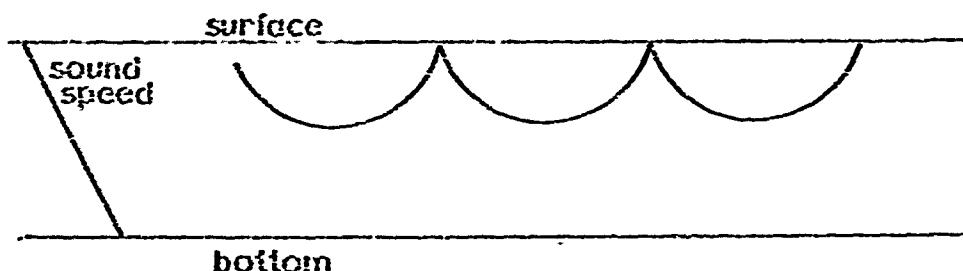


Figure A-6. Successive Surface Reflections - a typical Mediterranean sound path in the winter. (ii)

(iii) As sound travels through the water, some energy is absorbed by the water itself, and some is randomly scattered by material distributed throughout the water. These two effects, which cannot be separated, vary with frequency. The combined effect, displayed as an absorption coefficient, is shown at figure A-7.

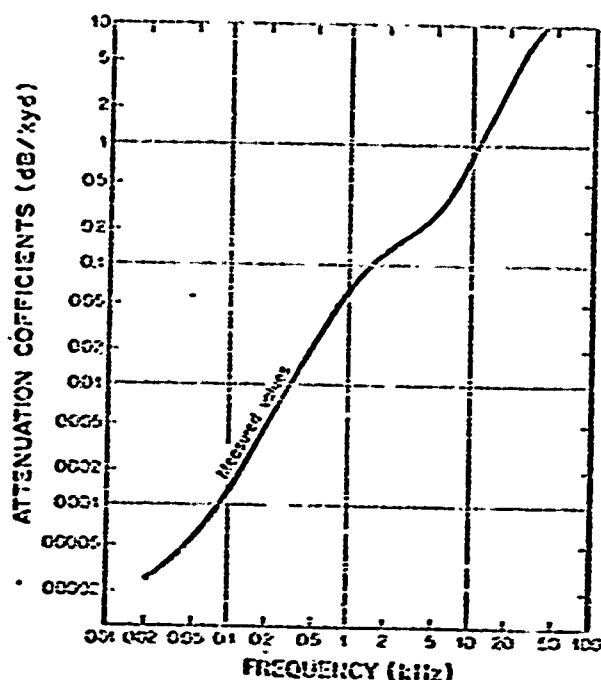


Figure A-7. Sound Attenuation. (b)

(b) The loss of acoustic energy at low frequencies on reflection from the surface is very small, while that from the bottom can be from 0 to well over 99%. The contribution to the received intensity by bottom reflected sound varies widely. The bottom reflection loss is greatest when the bottom is rough or is composed of soft mud. Loss is also high over a rock surface, smooth or rough. The least loss appears to result from reflection from a smooth sandy sea floor. In any case surface losses are less than bottom losses except under unusually stormy conditions. The angle at which the sound strikes the bottom affects the loss as well. The angle between the bottom and the sound path is called the grazing angle. When this angle is large, the loss tends to be largest; when the angle is small (less than 15 to 25 degrees) the loss is smallest. Bottom loss measurements made over a very large ocean area including

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the Mediterranean have been divided into 6 classes according to bottom loss. These correspond roughly to different magnitudes of bottom roughness. Bottom loss is frequency dependent as well. The average bottom loss curves and their variance vs. grazing angle, frequency, and loss class used in the present prediction model are given in Figure 65.

(S) In the detection of submerged submarines the radiation of sound from a source within a few hundred feet of the surface is of prime concern. Figures 74 and 76 present a sampling of sound rays emitted from the source at equal angular intervals. They illustrate propagation in Mediterranean winter from a source 300 feet deep. Bearing in mind that the separation of neighboring sound rays is approximately inversely proportional to the intensity, many regions of great intensification can be seen. The most intense sound occurs in regions where the crossing rays form long smooth curves called caustics. It is useful to imagine a sensor such as an array tested at, say 1000 feet. The transmission loss along this line, computed from ray theory, is given in Figure 72. The sharpness of the peak of intensity at the caustic is striking. It can be observed in the ocean under the right conditions. However, as will be discussed below, there are several other influences that also produce intensity peaks and still others that tend to blunt the sharp caustics illustrated here. Nevertheless, if a choice is presented, it is always best to place the array where the maximum number of caustics will be encountered. Transmission loss will be least in such regions.

(U) As the seasons progress from winter to summer, the surface waters of the Mediterranean are heated producing a layer of warm water (high sound speed) near the surface below which both temperature and sound speed decrease to a depth of about 300 feet. Below 300 feet the temperature is relatively constant so that sound velocity increases with depth in response to increasing pressure.

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Such a sound velocity structure is called a sound channel and its depth of minimum velocity is called the sound channel axis. A typical vertical profile is shown in Figure A-8.

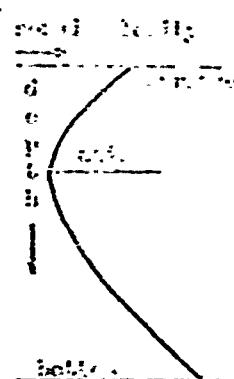


Figure A-8. Velocity Profile Showing Sound Channel. (U)

(U) The differences between these winter and summer profiles are illustrated in Figure 67-72.

CONVERGENCE ZONES

(U) In sound channels the sound is refracted toward the region of minimum sound speed. Figure A-9 shows regions of high intensity. These are called convergence zones and occur approximately every 12-20 miles in the Mediterranean Sea.

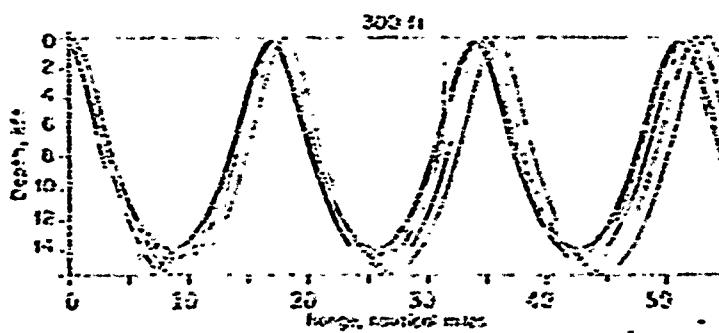


Figure A-9. Convergence Zones

If sufficient depth of water exists, the occurrence of convergence zones in different seasons is clear in Figures 67 through 73. The sound intensity may be increased by a factor as much as ten to a hundred in such zones. In any case, they are zones of marked intensification and are well worth using in any detection system.

(B) One more important feature of sound refraction in the ocean is the limitation on the horizontal range that can be covered by a single bottom reflection. Paths having a large grazing angle strike the bottom and return to the surface at comparatively short range. As the path becomes less steep, a point is reached where rays receive before they strike bottom. A single bottom reflected ray from this source can extend no farther than the ray which is tangent to, but just misses striking the bottom at the point of reflection. Similarly, if two bottom bounces are considered, then the effective range will be approximately doubled and so on.

(S) Deepwater sound velocity data used in computation of convergence zones were obtained from unpublished data on file at the Oceanographic Office and National Oceanographic Data Center. The sound velocity profiles selected were considered to be the most representative deep profiles available for each one-degree quadrangle in each season. Where the sonic structure was not uniform in a quadrangle, two or more profiles were selected. Velocity gradients below the sound channel axis were calculated for the profiles by ten-degree quadrangles for each season. However, near Gibraltar the gradients were so variable that they were calculated for each profile. The average depth was calculated for one-degree quadrangles. Ranges were computed by using pertinent sound velocity and depth data. Basic assumptions were that a flat bottom extended between the source and the receiver and that there was no appreciable horizontal variation of sound velocity. Convergence zone calculations could not be made for fall because of insufficient data. Convergence zone transmission generally does not occur in winter.

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(S) Ranges to the inner margin of the zone of convergence in spring (Figure 59) vary from less than 10 kiloyards southwest of Greece to more than 35 kiloyards east of the Balearic Islands. In summer (Figure 62), these ranges vary between 30 and 45 kiloyards throughout most of the Mediterranean. These differences are accounted for by the pronounced negative, near-surface gradients which produce extreme refraction of the ray paths in the upper layers.

(U) The degree of certainty of occurrence of convergence zone transmission is very much dependent on depth excess. The depth excess is the difference between the bottom depth and the depth where the near-surface maximum velocity reappears below the sound channel axis. The greater the depth excess, the greater is the probability of convergence zone formation.

(S) One method of estimating the probability of convergence zone formation indicates that if a depth excess variability of 300 fathoms is assumed, then an average depth excess of greater than 600 fathoms results in a probability of convergence zone occurrence of greater than 95 percent and assures reliable transmission. Where the average depth excess is between 400 and 600 fathoms, the probability of occurrence is between 75 and 95 percent and this transmission mode is likely. Convergence zone transmission is marginal where the average depth excess is less than 400 fathoms, and the probability of occurrence is less than 75 percent.

(S) The surface insonification intervals represent the difference between the range to the convergence zone and the range of the ray which just grazed the bottom and returns to the surface. The surface insonification interval is substantially wider in spring than in summer. A result of the increased surface heating in summer produces the longer range to the convergence zone and thereby reduces the insonified interval. In spring the interval varies from less than 5 kiloyards to greater than 40 kiloyards, and in summer the interval varies from less than 5 kiloyards to more than 15 kiloyards.

(S) In the Mediterranean as elsewhere in the oceans, the top few tens of a hundred feet may be mixed to a uniform temperature. Sound from a source within such a layer is transmitted by reverberating at depth and reflecting from the surface. This layer is called either the surface mixed layer or the isothermal layer. It is a sound channel and can be an efficient sound duct for frequencies whose wavelength is a small fraction of the thickness of the layer. In the Mediterranean, this layer is 10 to 60 feet thick in summer. Most frequencies employed in long range detection leak rapidly out of this surface duct and it is of little use for towed arrays in the Mediterranean.

(U) In summary, the sound will either reflect from the surface or bottom, or it may be refracted prior to striking either interface.

(S) The total sound intensity received by an omnidirectional sensor is the sum of all the paths that reach the sensor. A prediction model must account for them all. The various paths are:

1. Direct (very short distances only).
2. Bottom reflected by one or more bottom bounces, but including all combinations of surface and bottom reflection. It turns out that reliable predictions are not achieved with less than 7 or 8 bottom reflections per 100 miles, and more may be required.
3. Surface duct. Contributes little to long range detection (over 100 miles).
4. Convergence zones. Important contributor, especially in the Mediterranean.
5. Deep sound channel paths, reflecting neither from surface nor bottom. The receiver and source must both be within the sound channel for use of these paths.
6. In winter, paths 3, 4 and 5 are replaced by the half channel whose axis is at the surface over much of the Mediterranean (Figure A-G). Convergence zones are rarely individually identifiable, but caustics of the winter half channel provide zones of intensification.

(S) The prediction model now in operation at the Fleet Numerical Weather Central, Monterey, California traces the necessary rays for each type of path, and computes the corresponding intensities from the spacing of the rays. Bottom reflection takes place from a model bottom that approximates the known bathymetric profile. The model responds to horizontal changes in the vertical sound speed structure of the water. When all the individual path intensities have been computed, the computer identifies all the paths that are superimposed along the transmission track at the depth assumed for the array. The corresponding intensities are added together for points every half mile along the track to the limit of the computation, thus providing a complete prediction of transmission loss along the chosen track and depth. Bottom reflections and convergence zones from a shallow source at short range can be recognized by their shape as is shown in Figure A-10.

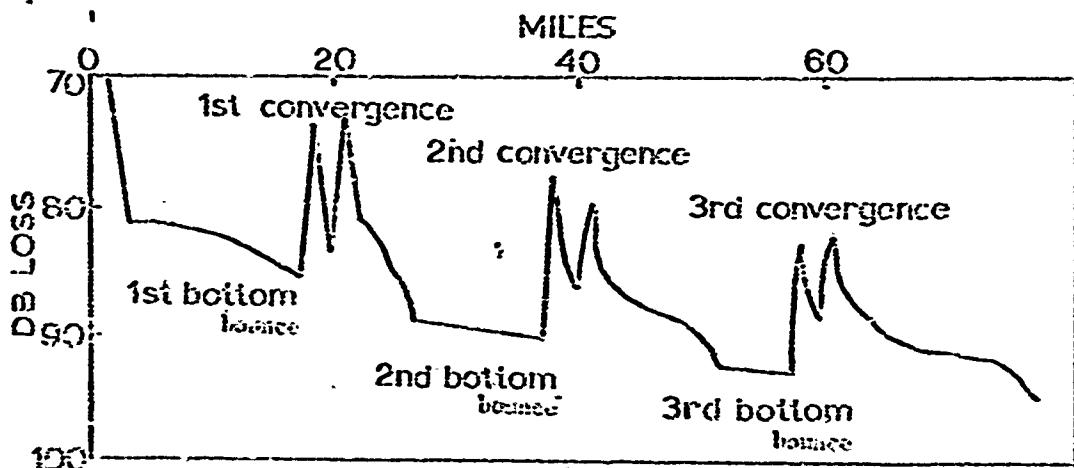


Figure A-10. Schematic Transmission Loss Curve For Either a Shallow Source or a Shallow Receiver. (U)

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(S) When the first convergence zone is entered, a sharp increase in intensity occurs followed by a gradual decrease and then a sudden drop at the edge of the first zone is left. Then for an interval, the second bottom reflection dominates until the second convergence zone is entered, and so on as suggested in Figure A-10. The successive convergence zones broaden in proportion to their ordinal number until they overlap. At greater ranges, the leading edge of the convergence zone (which generally consists of two or more peaks) rises above the general level. When the source lies well within the sound channel and the receiver is not at very shallow depth, these features just described are not obvious and the prediction curve, though it may be jagged, cannot readily be analyzed into individual types of path.

TRANSMISSION LOSS

(S) Figures 67 to 72 are a set of predictions representing loss at 60 and 300 Hz to be anticipated for various source/receiver combinations in summer and in winter in the Iberian basin, in the Ionian Sea and in the Levantine basin. The path structure for many of the curves can be identified by comparison with Figure A-10. A class 3 bottom was assumed as the best single designation of bottom reflectivity for all three areas. This assumption is pessimistic for the Iberian Sea where the basin floor is smooth and an excellent reflector. The Ionian and Levantine regions have a generally rough floor, but with some smooth areas.

(S) The quality of these predictions has been tested by comparing them with two series of transmission measurements derived from explosive sound sources in the Iberian and Ionian Seas (Figure 73). The comparisons are not exact because the measurements were made in 1/3 octave bands at 55, 100 and 200 Hz whereas the predictions were made for 60 and 300 Hz. Nevertheless, the differences

SOURCE

associated with such frequencies are generally small except when the direct transmission is reflected by the bottom. The method of measurement has been thoroughly tested. The observed points are compared (Figure 73) with the nearest available combination of frequency and source and receiver depth. The measured levels lie within 2 or 3 dB (and certainly less) of the prediction curve except at short ranges. There, the measured levels are higher than the predicted ones by different amounts up to 5 or 6 dB. This discrepancy may be due in part to the choice of bottom class 3 instead of class 1. The observed values also show less variation between peaks and dips than do the predictions. These discrepancies are probably due to known deficiencies of the ray model such as failure to account for sound scattering or diffraction. While not an exhaustive test of the model, the measurements suggest it is valid to within a few dB in average level and that it successfully predicts the level of the peaks.

(S) For reasons to be explained later, it is recommended that for best detection, towed arrays be maintained near the central and deepest parts of the basins. The predictions of Figure 67 to 72 were made for such locations and are not designed for use elsewhere, for example, over shallow slopes or in the several gradually shoaling trenches leading into the basins.

(S) Figure 77 presents the peak levels (minimum transmission loss) for 60 Hz at a range of 200 miles for all the predictions of Figure 67 to 72. Similarly, Figure 77 presents the arithmetic mean of the greatest and least transmission loss near 200 miles. In the absence of extensive transmission data for the Mediterranean, the assumption is made that average levels will approximate those of Figure 77 but that peaks as high as those of Figures 67-72 will be observed. The latter assumption is the weaker. From the average transmission loss of Figure 77, the source at 69 ft. depth is seen to have generally higher losses by about 4 to 7 dB than the 500 foot source except for a shallow (99 foot) sensor in winter (or for any sensor depth in the winter). The results for any

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source deeper than about 200 feet should be similar to the loss at 500 feet. This prediction agrees with experiments between 60 feet and 500 feet shown by Pugs (1948). The transmission loss vs. depth data for all areas suggest that there is no significant advantage in testing deeper than 700 feet for detecting any target 500 feet deep or shallower. There is some possibility, as yet untested, that an array tested at 4000 to 5000 feet might do well against a shallow target. For periscope depth targets, there appears to be a distinct advantage to testing at 90 feet or less, but the penalty against deep target detection in so doing amounts to 6 to 8 dB.

(S) The prediction in (c) has not been tested enough to permit reliance on some of the finer distinctions apparent on these graphs. It is suggested that experiments with different depths be referred to repeated tests at 500 feet.

#### GEOGRAPHIC CONSIDERATIONS

(S) The entire transmission loss discussion thus far has assumed a bottom having the same average depth along the transmission track. The Mediterranean Sea consists of several basins with sides of varying steepness. They are separated by ridges or extensive and complicated shallower water areas such as the Strait of Sicily. Very few transmission loss measurements have been made across these boundaries and very few have been made across the sloping sides. Prediction models for such areas are available but they have not been tested. Nevertheless, it is known that sound levels are not heavily attenuated on transmission over a slope until the water depth is within 200 to 400 feet of the bottom of the sound channel. This is a serious problem in the Mediterranean only when the axis of the channel is below the surface, or largely during the warm half of the year. This condition is depicted in Figures 54-57. Within the area designated as the better limited, the predictions of Figures 67 to 69 apply. During the winter, the predictions apply in water deeper than about 300 to 500 fathoms and may be a reliable guide in 200 fathoms of water.

(S) Several long narrow embayments such as the gulf between Barcelona and the Balearic Islands should probably away from the deep basin. Sound from a shallow target is transmitted better down-slope than up-slope. Therefore, the proper position for the array for best surveillance is near the center of the embayment, preferably also near the deeper end. Some experimentation with this possibility is indicated.

(U) Predictions of transmission loss in the deep basins of the Mediterranean Sea (except the Tyrrhenian Sea) have been furnished. Charts showing where the predictions apply in summer and winter are given in Figure 77.

(S) The average transmission loss increases 5 dB for each doubling of the range beyond about 50 miles. For periscope depth targets, transmission loss is higher by 4 to 7 dB than for deeper targets. These losses are highest in summer and in the eastern Mediterranean. They amount to 92 to 96 dB at 200 miles for 60 Hz. In winter, the transmission loss for the target at 60 foot depths does not exceed 92 dB and may be considerably less at 200 miles.

(S) Transmission losses for targets at depths between 200 and 500 feet probably will not exceed 90 dB at 200 miles in any seasons with proper array depth. Usually losses at this range for such targets will not exceed 88 dB at 60 Hz.

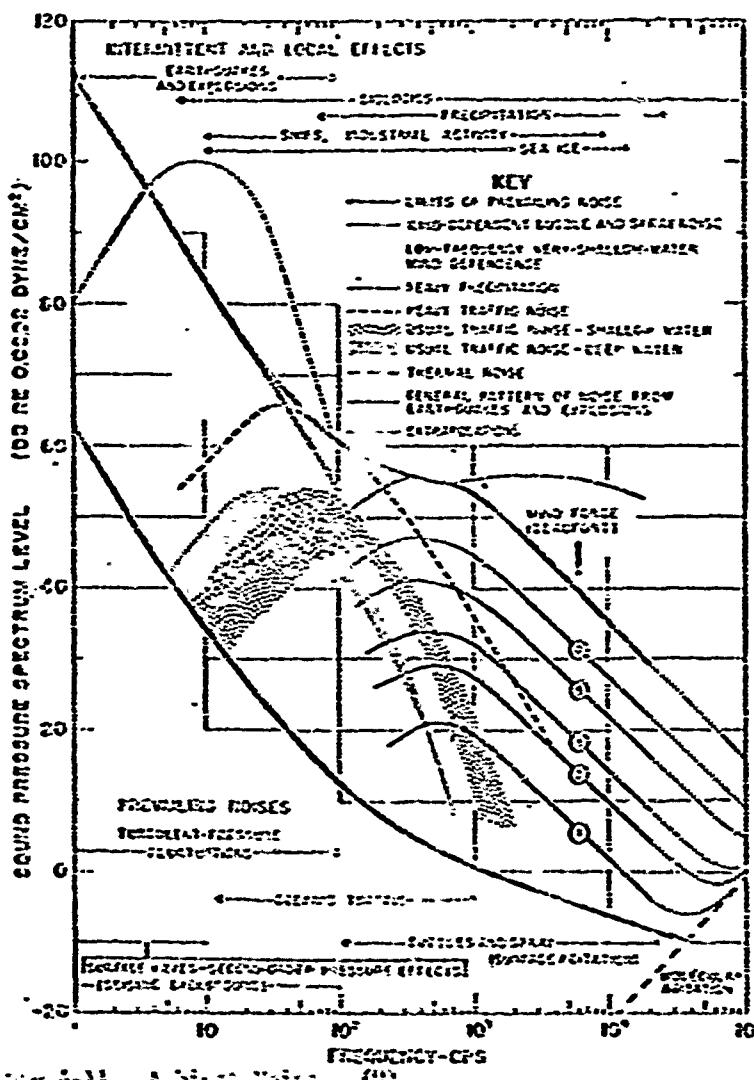
(S) The basis for interpretation is provided by comparison of some of the predictions with measurements made under somewhat similar conditions. Agreement is within 3 to 5 dB or better with the predictions having higher loss except where the agreement is within 0 to 2 dB.

(S) A practice of towing the array at 300 feet is recommended, with an aggressive campaign to compare these results with both shallower and deeper target depths. Their choice should depend on sonar conditions and knowledge of target depth. It is always an acoustic advantage to tow at the depth of the target even though this practice may not be desirable for reasons of safety. It appears that there is little advantage in towing at great depth, with the

exception that depths of about 4600 to 4800 feet may be advantageous as point a primary depth target.

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(ii) Ambient noise in the ocean is the sum of sounds from shipping, weather-induced wave noises, mostly the noise of breaking waves, rain or hail on the water, seismic disturbances, animal sounds, industrial noise and others. The sources are listed here in rough order of dominance in general. At any particular place and time, any of the later items on the list may dominate altogether. Neat (1962) has summarized the effects due to shipping and weather in Figure A-33.



### **Figure A-13. Ancient Native American**

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(S) These are based on measurements in the oceans. Probably, the weather induced noise at the higher frequencies of Figure A-11 are applicable to the Mediterranean. At frequencies below about 500 Hz reliance should be placed on measurements in the Mediterranean itself. Unfortunately, there is little data concerning the Mediterranean. An analysis has been made of traffic noise through Gibraltar. In 1968, scientists from Hudson Laboratories and the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution made three independent sets of measurements in the Atlantic, Tyrrhenian, Indian and Levantine Seas. The most extensive set, made by Arase and Arase, has been reported and its results are summarized in Figure 78. The Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution's measurements corroborate the Arases' work. Despite the considerable flurry of recent work, we remain rather ignorant about noise conditions in the Mediterranean Sea. It is important that every reasonable opportunity be taken to measure ambient noise by means of the towed array. For example, nothing is known either of azimuthal distribution of noise nor whether there are depth dependent effects. Both can be measured by means of towed arrays.

(S) Experience with other low frequency detection systems in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans shows that the spectrum level of noise at 100 Hz is -18 to -20 dB in a rather noisy location; -25 dB is representative of locations within 100 miles or so of shipping lanes; -27 to -29 dB is observed at locations well removed from shipping but capable of detecting distant shipping and -31 to -35 dB has been observed in truly remote ocean areas. Thus, it is plain that the Mediterranean is an especially noisy place since levels of -16 dB are common and 0 dB are observed. However, it is also true that levels as low as -20 dB or lower often prevail. At this writing, too little is known of ambient noise in the Mediterranean to do more than speculate.

(S) In experimental operations, the level of noise at the array should be measured virtually constantly, and steps should be taken to determine whether

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(S) In experiments, the level of noise at the array should be measured directly or indirectly, and steps should be taken to determine whether the noise is caused by local ships, far noise, or is the ambient noise of the sea. Attempts should be made to correlate ambient noise with local shipping. In addition to constant monitoring, procedures should be adopted for running quietly at frequent intervals so as to measure ambient noise. It may be possible to identify relatively quiet areas which still permit broad surveillance coverage. It seems unlikely that there will be large differences in noise at different depths of array, but this possibility should be tested. If differences are found, then the noise advantages should be weighed against any penalties that may be incurred in transmission loss.

(S) It is suggested that the peak of the noise distribution in the appropriate band be assumed to prevail unless a measurement is available. For example, in the Indian Sea, the -10 dB level is the most frequently measured spectrum level at 100 Hz. Suppose that at 200 miles a detection is made 50% of the time. The loss is 92 dB (for a 60 foot target). Assume RR is 7 dB and AG is 18 dB. Then

$$SE = SL + 92 + 10 + 7 + 18$$

$$0 = SL + 64$$

$$SL = 64$$

If as suggested earlier, the various uncertainties are considered, it is plain that the target could be a noisy 75 or a very quiet 47 dB according to the estimates on page 15. If the noise has been measured, then the uncertainty is reduced by 10 dB between 65 dB and 52 dB -- i.e., to an uncertainty factor of forty. Possibly AG has been measured and is known to be 18 dB -- the source level now stands at 65 dB to 52 dB. Possibly we might know enough about transmission to reduce the uncertainty in the average transmission loss to  $\pm 1$  dB making the source level 65 dB to 54 dB, or a factor of eight. How well is RR known? How variable is the target likely to be? How did we know the target was at 200 miles? Or at periscope depth? Good luck.

CONFIDENTIAL

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Figure 3

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Figure 1 (revised by Undersea Surveillance Oceanographic  
Center)

Mediterranean Sea Project, Propagation Loss, Fleet Numerical Weather Central,  
Monterey, Calif., 1969. Unpubl. (CONFIDENTIAL)

Figures 65 through 72, 75 (Also Hays, F. E. Roads from  
Oceanographic Institution, 1965), 73, 75, 76 and A-16

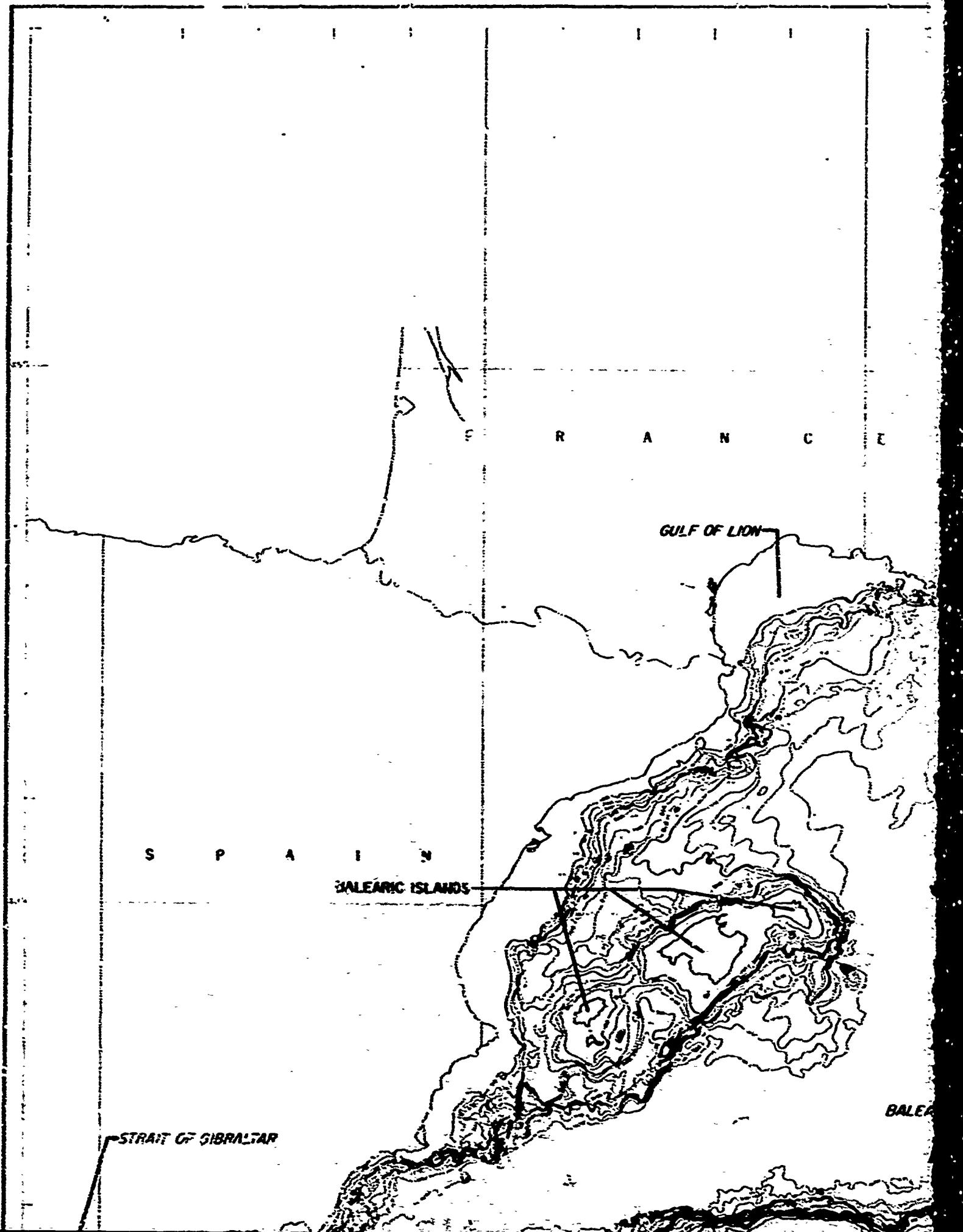
Operational Oceanography of the Western Mediterranean Sea for Submariners,  
U. S. Navy Hydrographic Office, Spec. Publ. SP-43, 1962. (CONFIDENTIAL)

Operational Oceanography of the Eastern Mediterranean Sea for Submariners,  
U. S. Naval Oceanographic Office Spec. Publ. SP-50, June 1962. (CONFIDENTIAL)

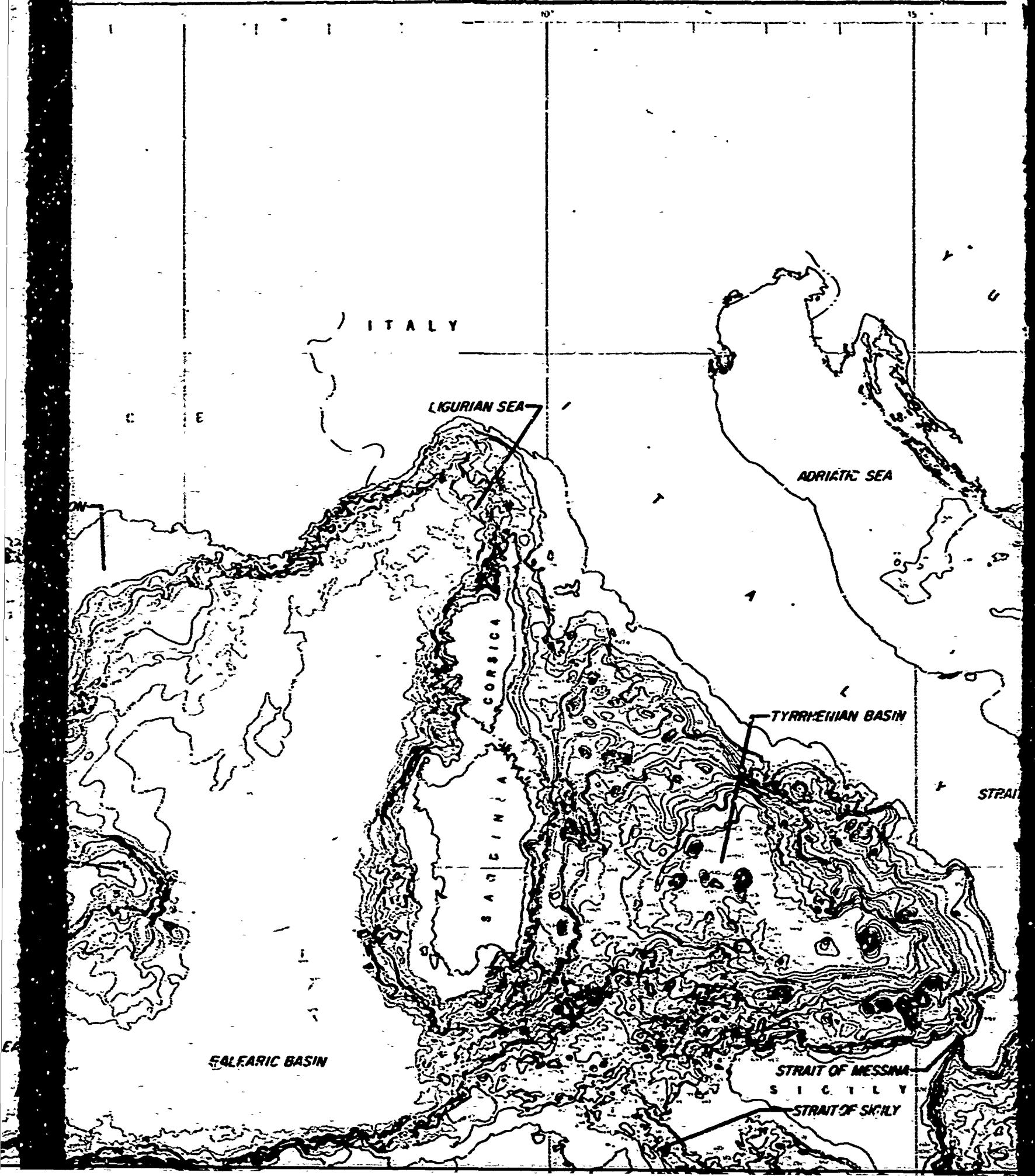
Charts from the preceding two references were combined to form Figures 4  
through 59, 45, 47, 49, 51 and 53 through 56.

Sound Velocity Data Compiled by the U. S. Naval Oceanographic Office, 1969  
Unpublished.

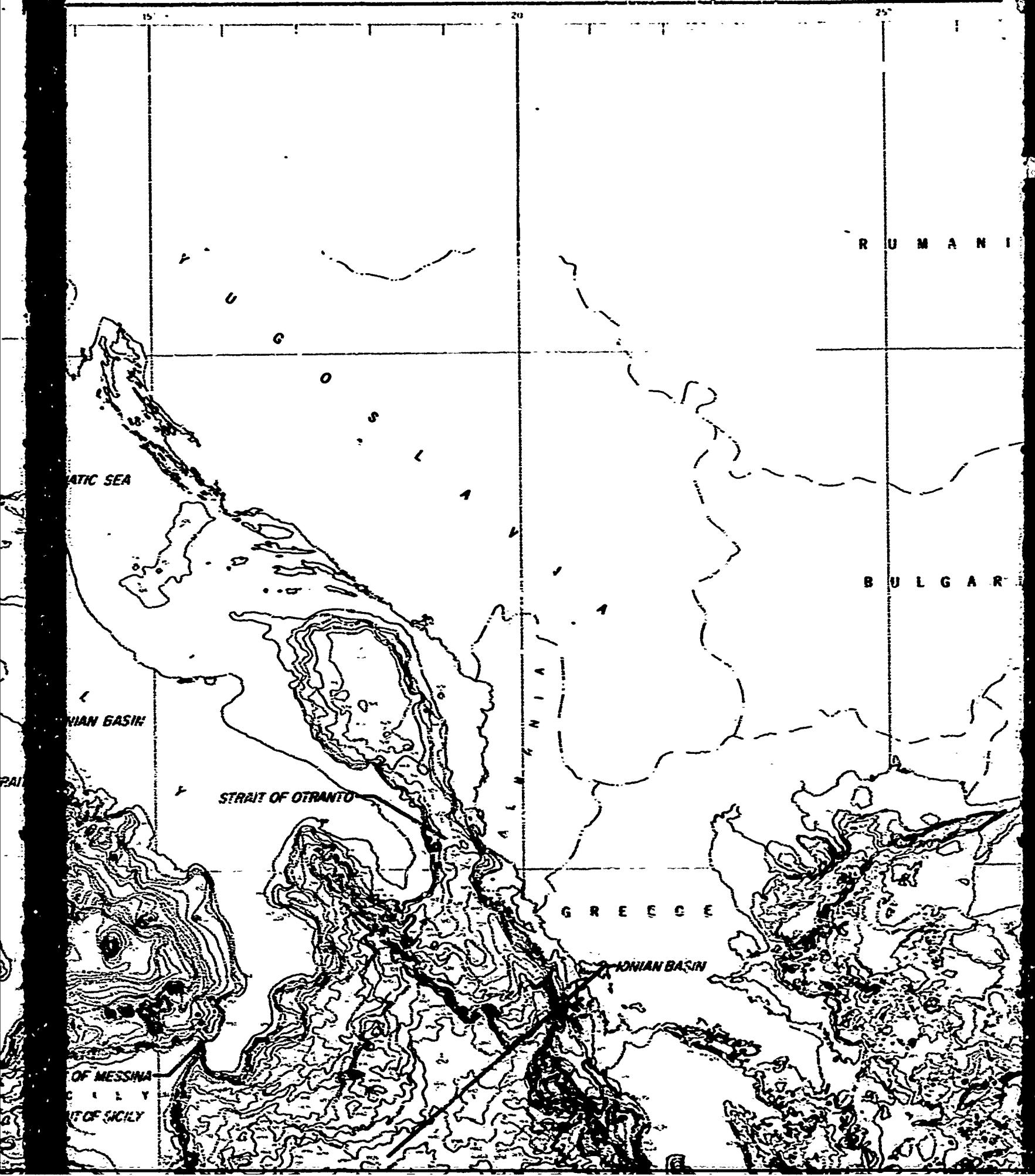
Figure 57



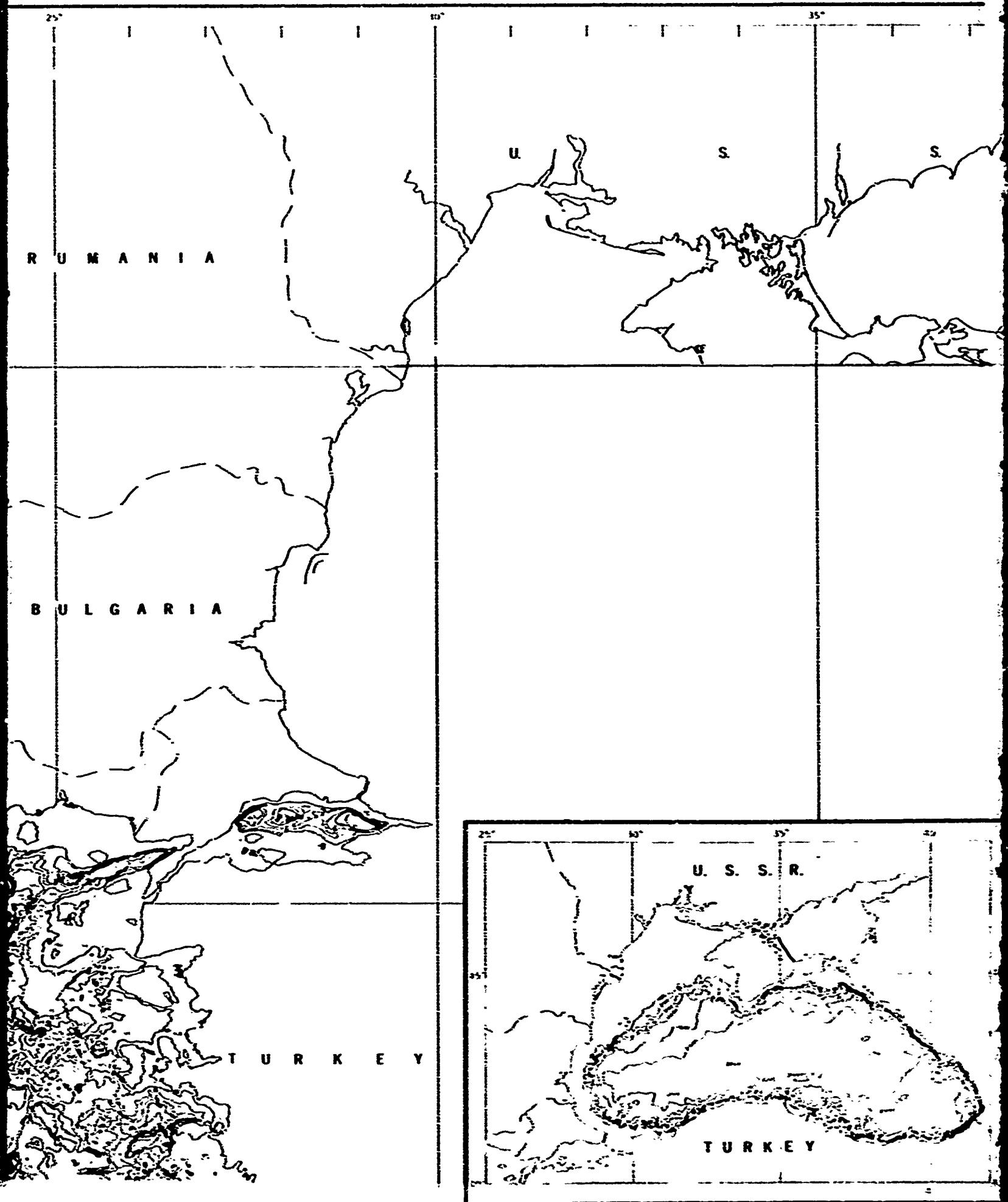
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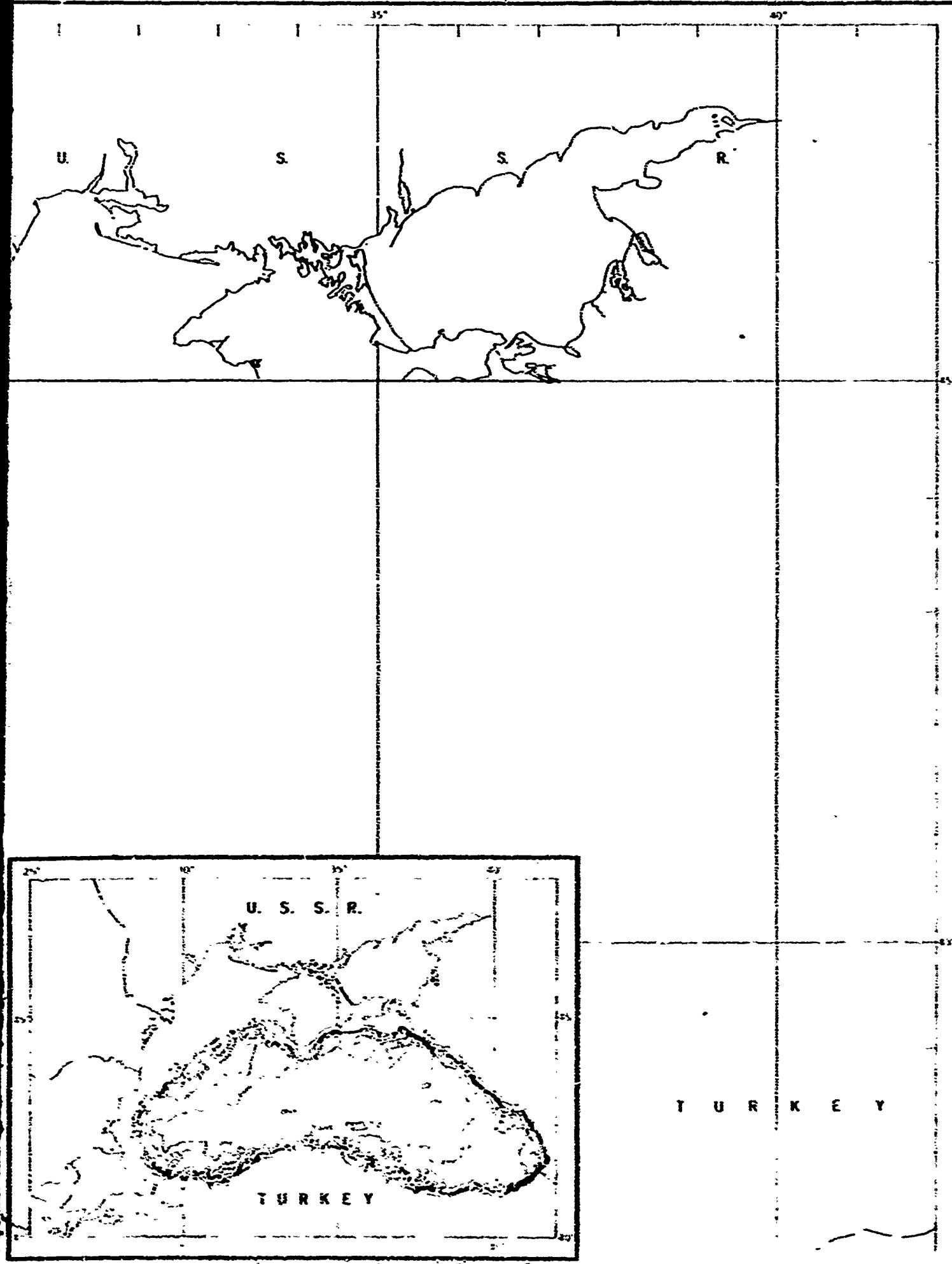


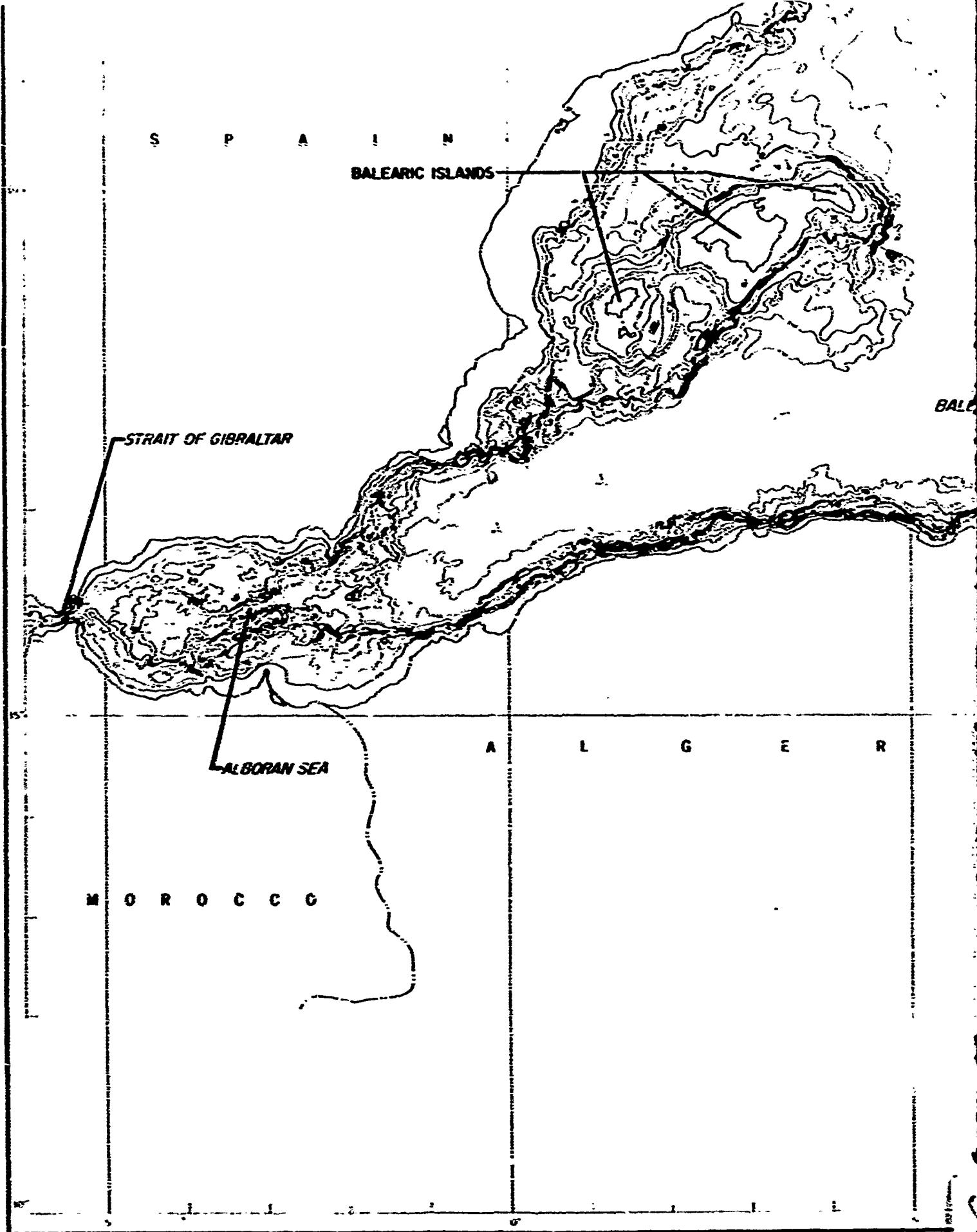
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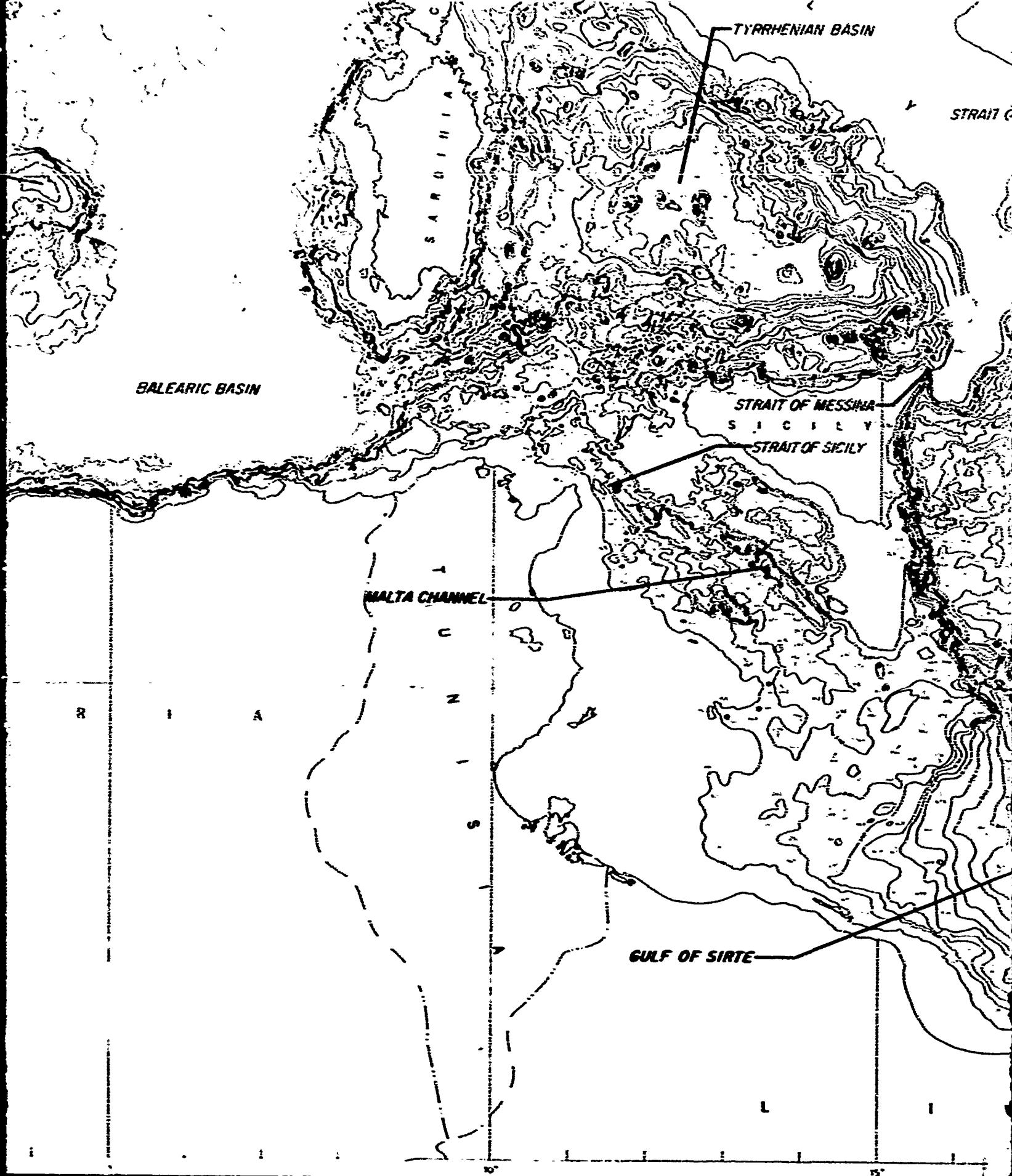


FIGURE 1 BATHYMETRY OF THE BAY

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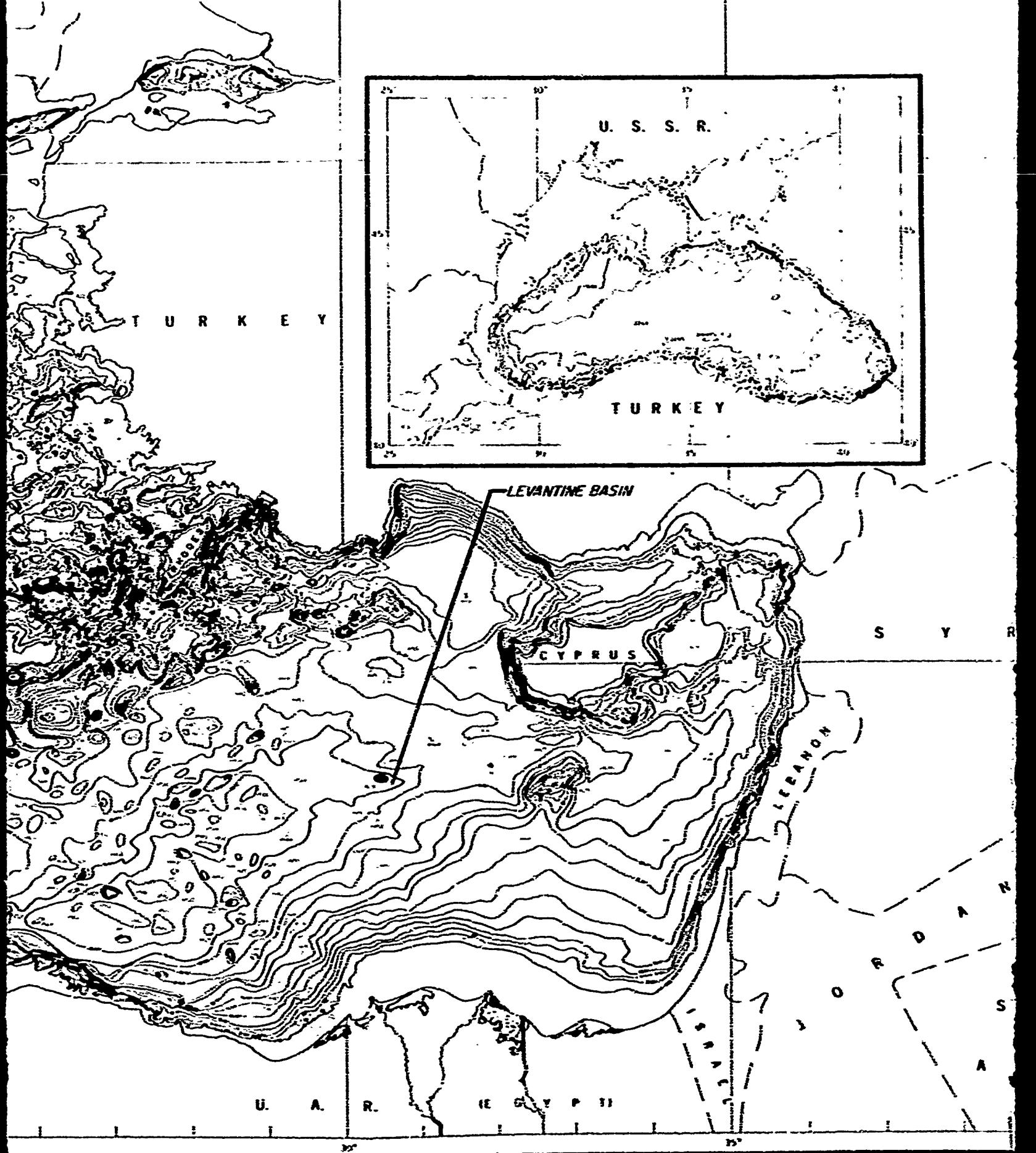
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BATHYMETRY OF THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA (DEPTHS IN FATHOMS UNCORRECTED FOR VARIATION IN SOUND VELOCITY IN SEA WATER FROM 4800 FT SEC.)

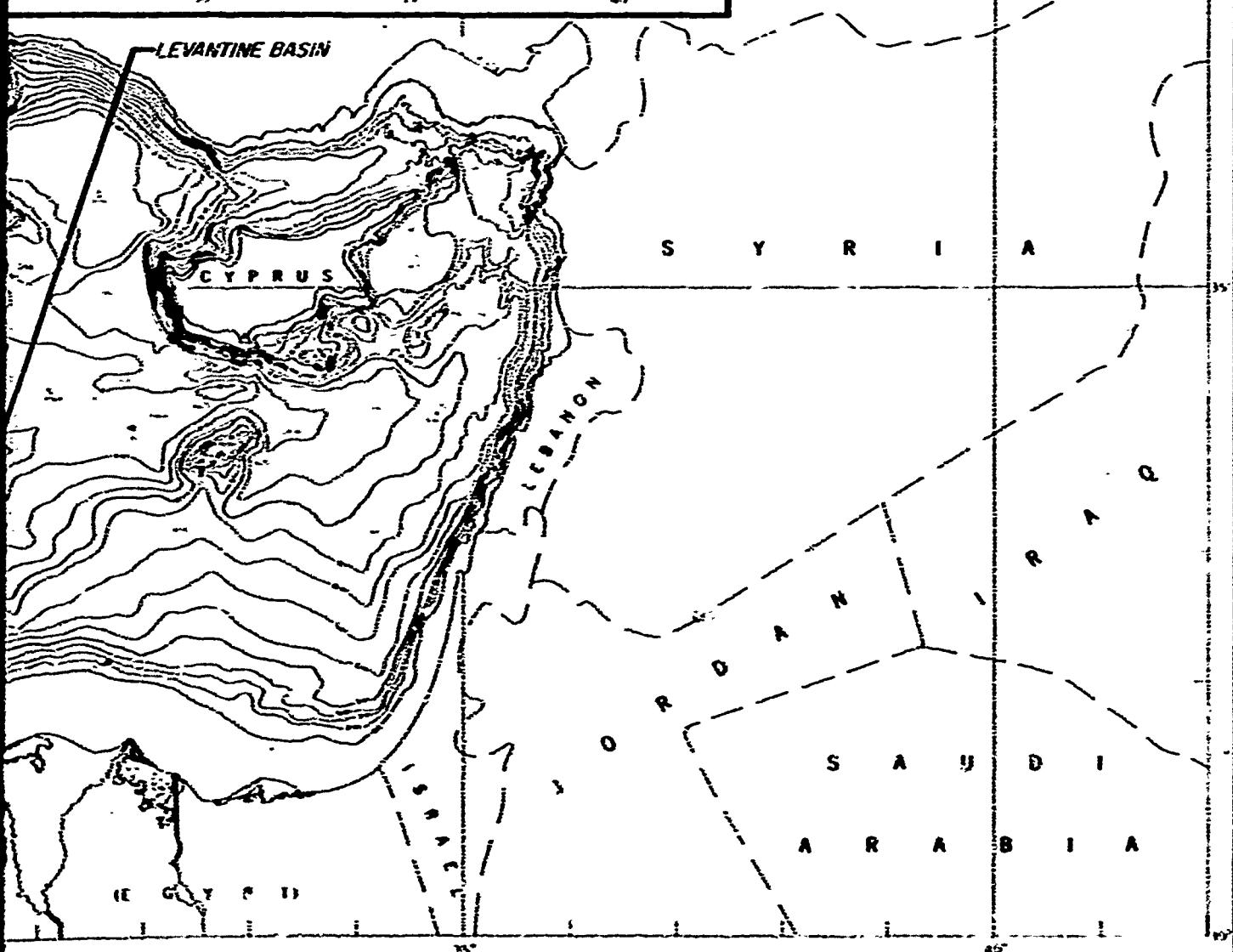
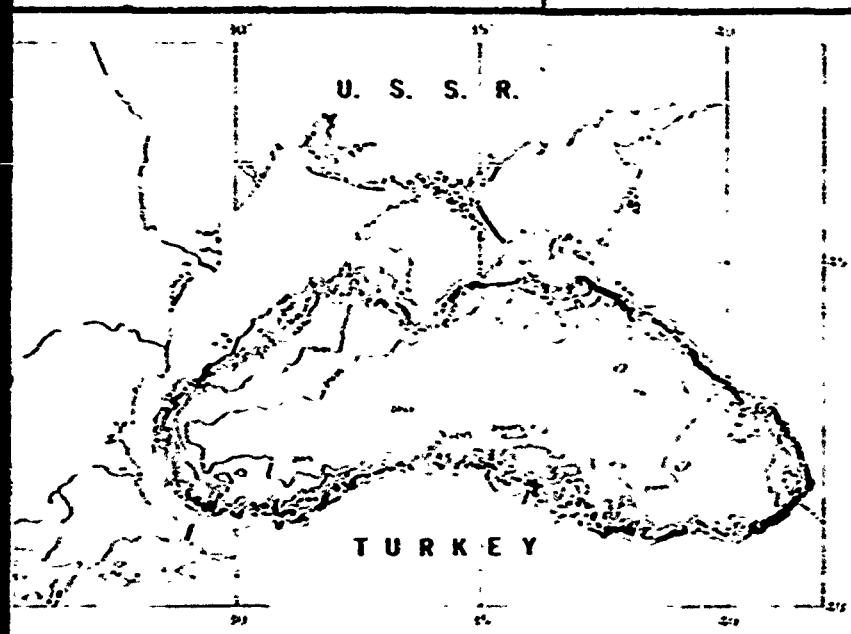
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SEC 1

MAP 10000000

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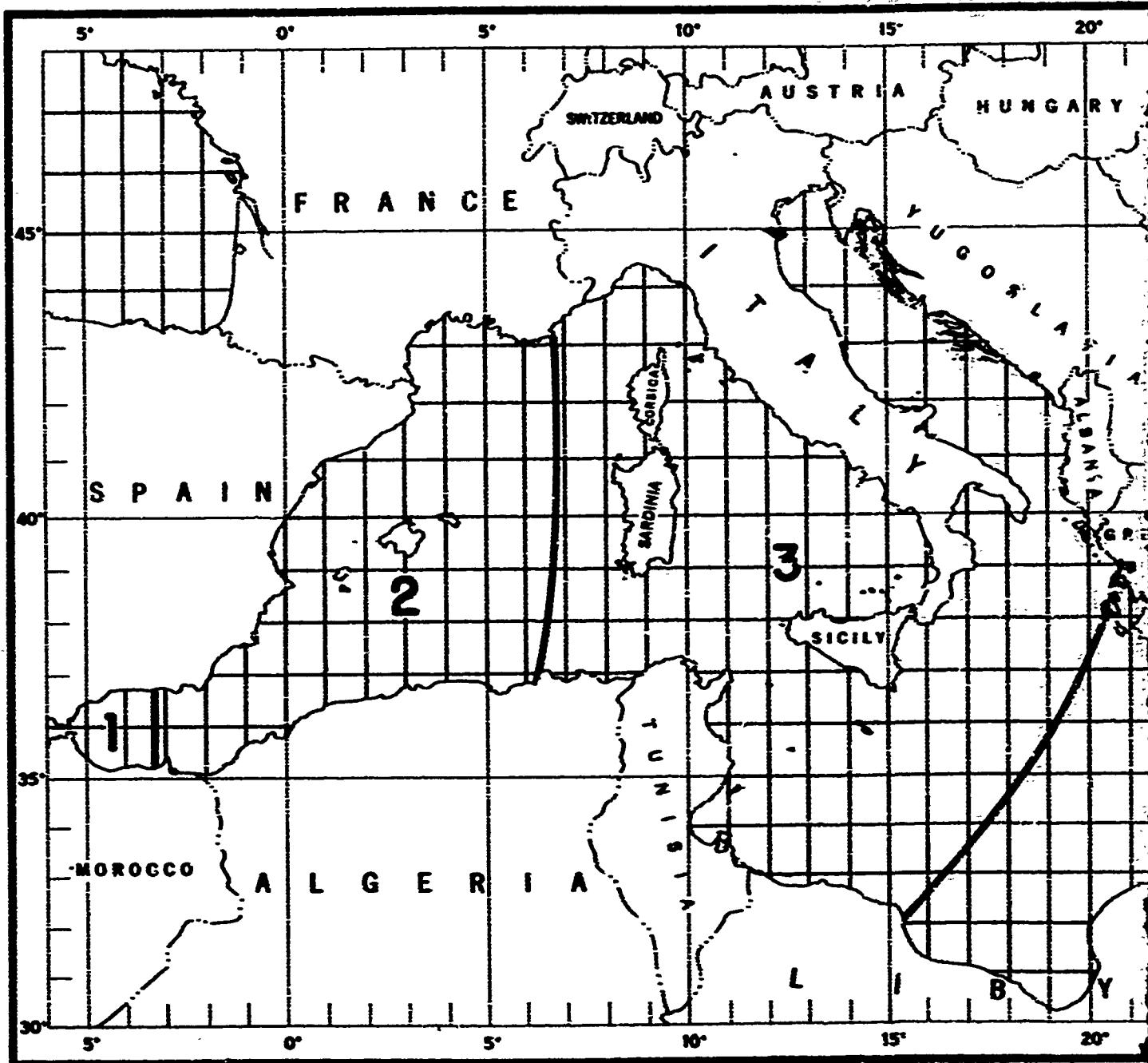
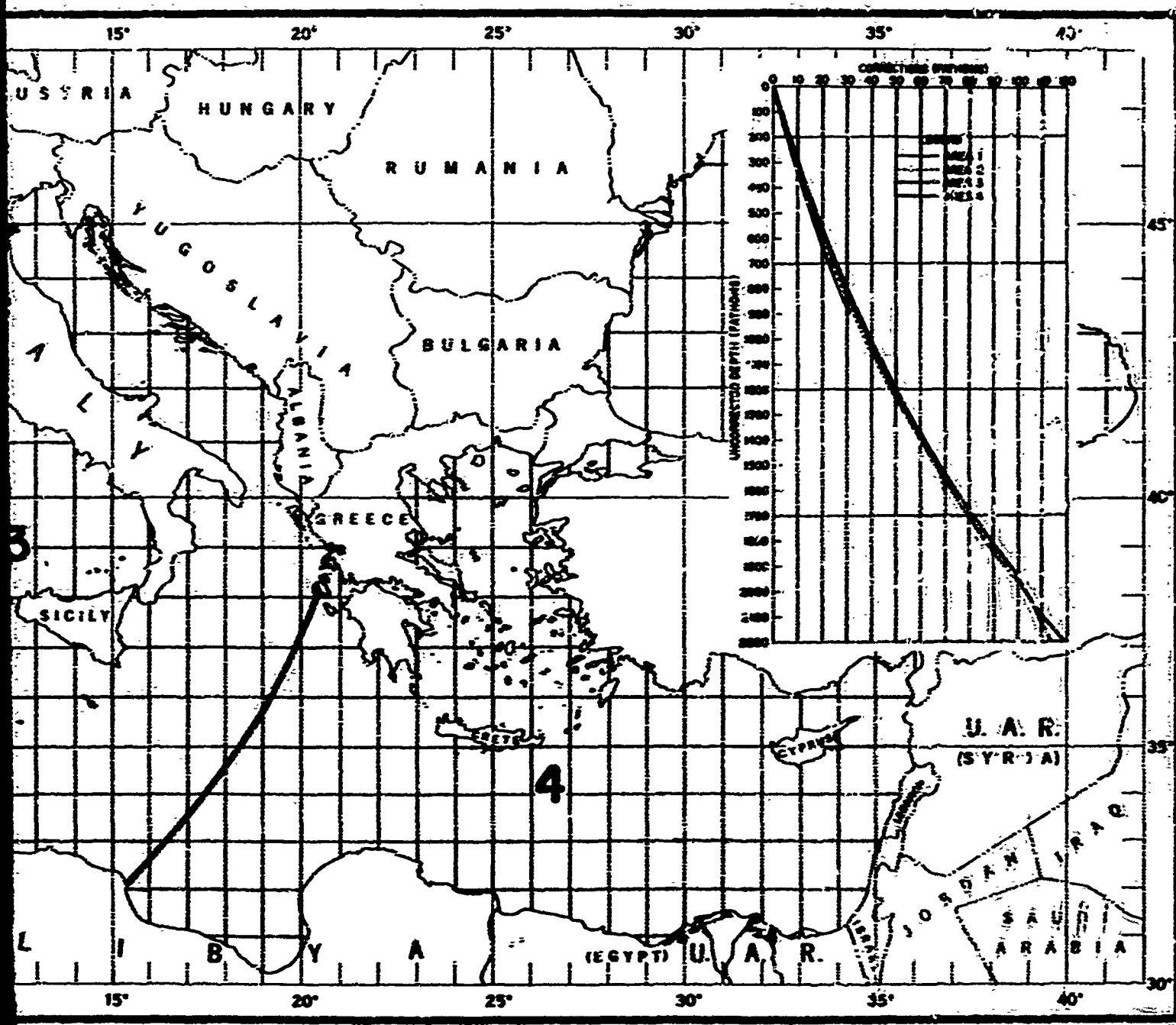


FIGURE 2. SOUND VELOCITY CORRECTIONS FOR DEPTHS.



SOUND VELOCITY CORRECTIONS FOR DEPTHS SHOWN IN FIGURE 1.

FIGURE 2. DEPTH CORRECTIONS FOR SOUND VELOCITY

2

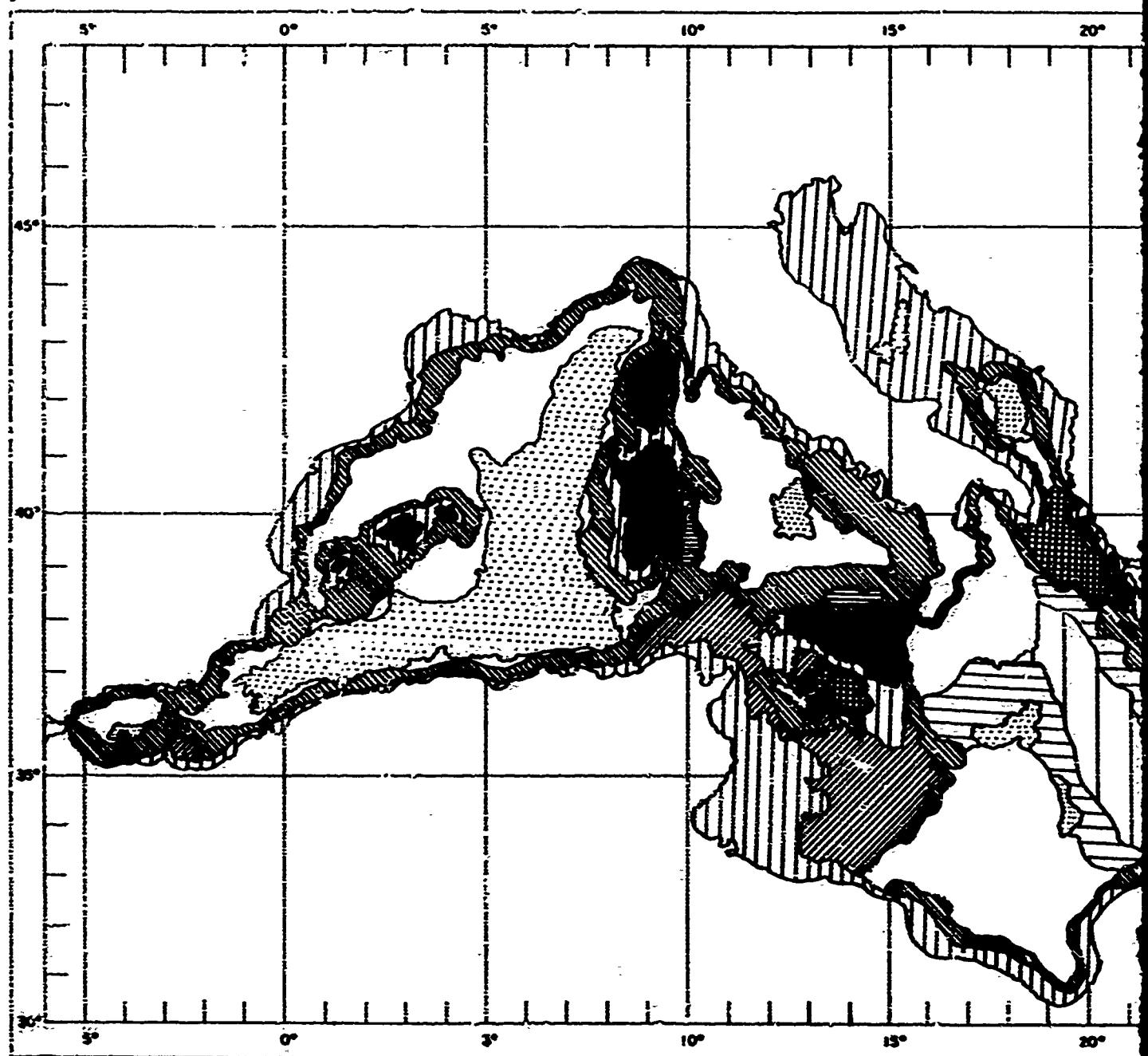


FIGURE 3. PHYSIOGRAPHIC PROVINCES OF

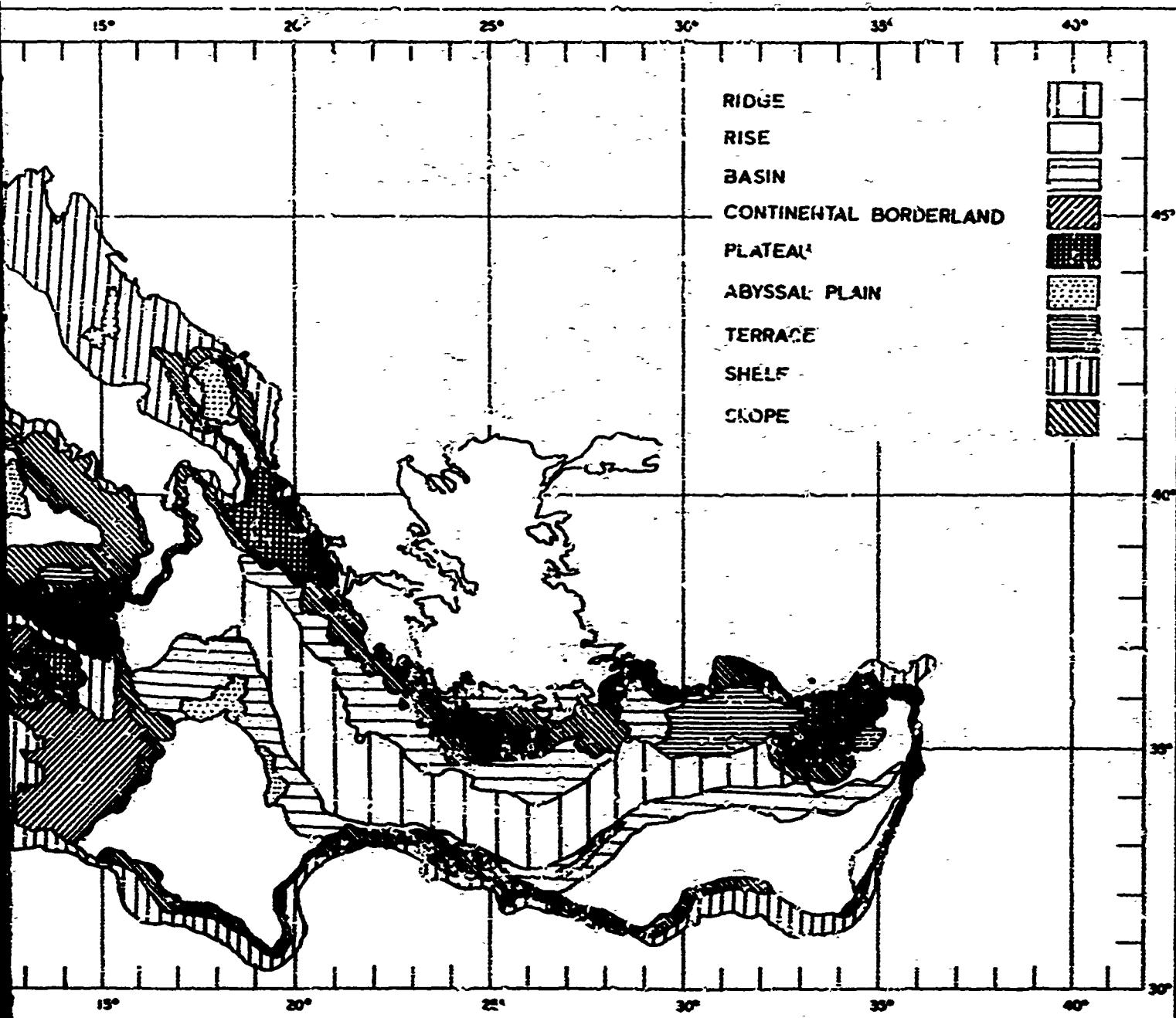


FIGURE 3. PHYSIOGRAPHIC PROVINCES OF THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA

FIGURE 3. PHYSIOGRAPHIC PROVINCES

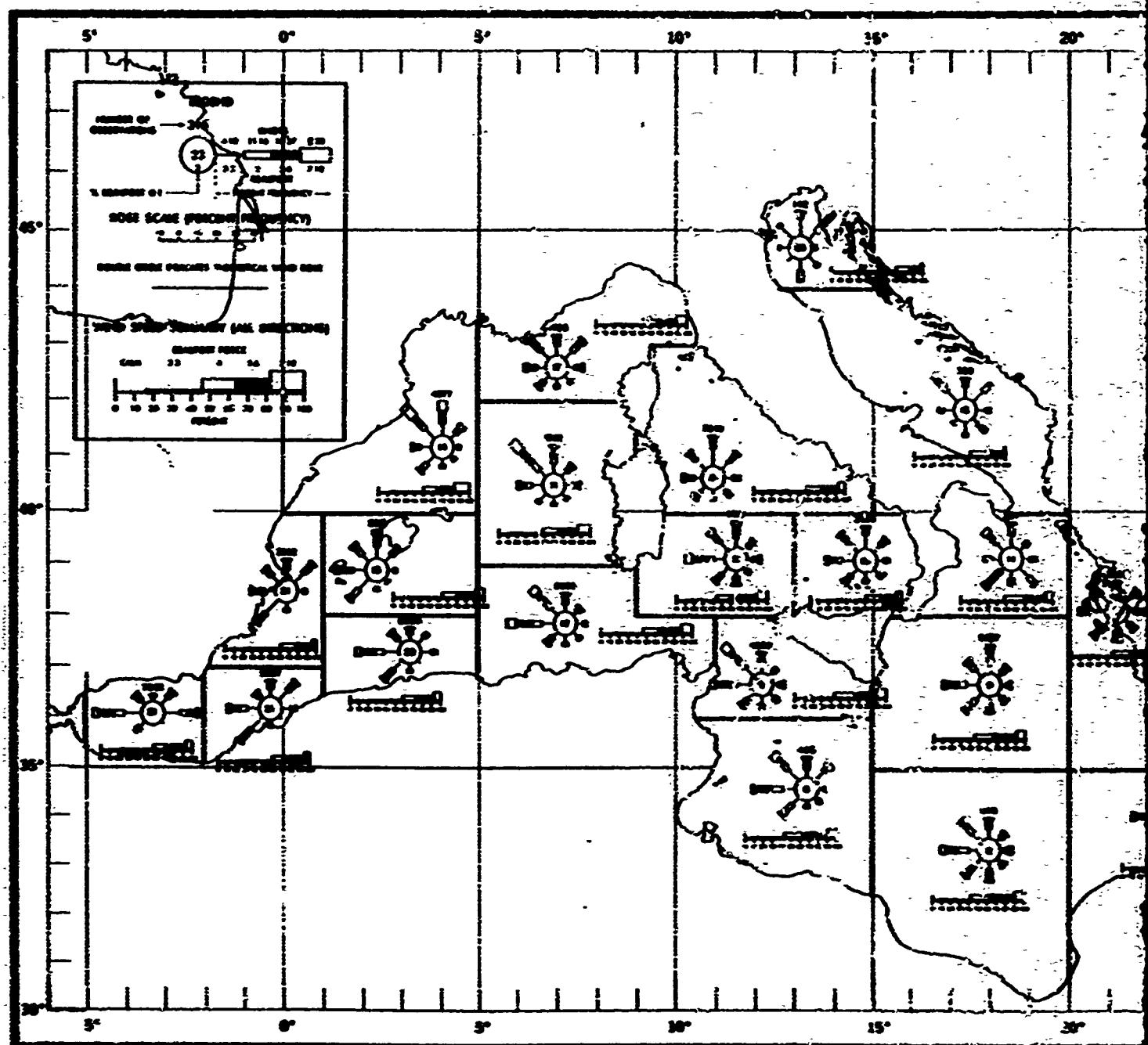
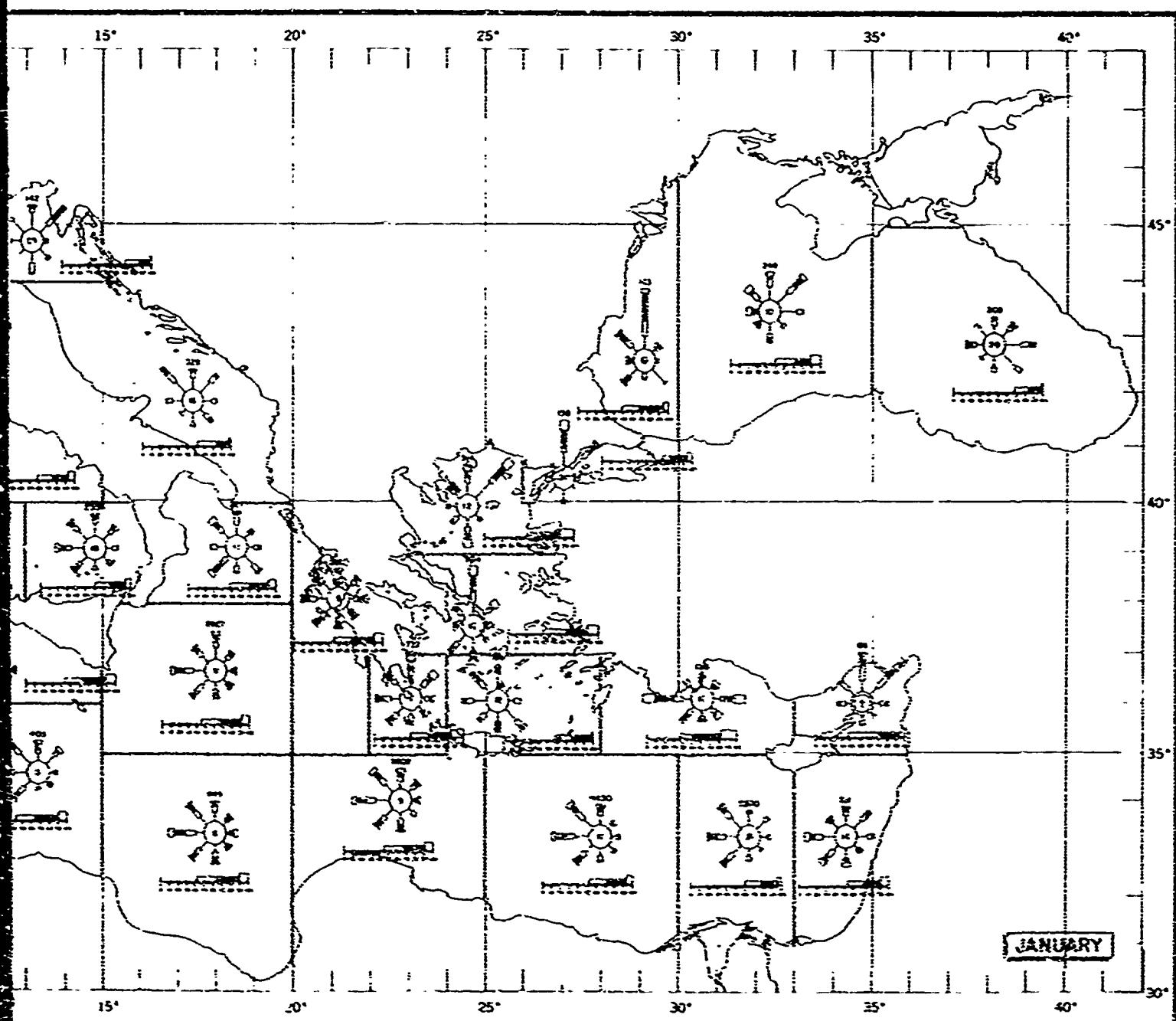


FIGURE 4. SURFACE WIND ROSES, THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA



SURFACE WIND ROSES, THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, JANUARY

FIGURE 4. SURFACE WINDS, JANUARY

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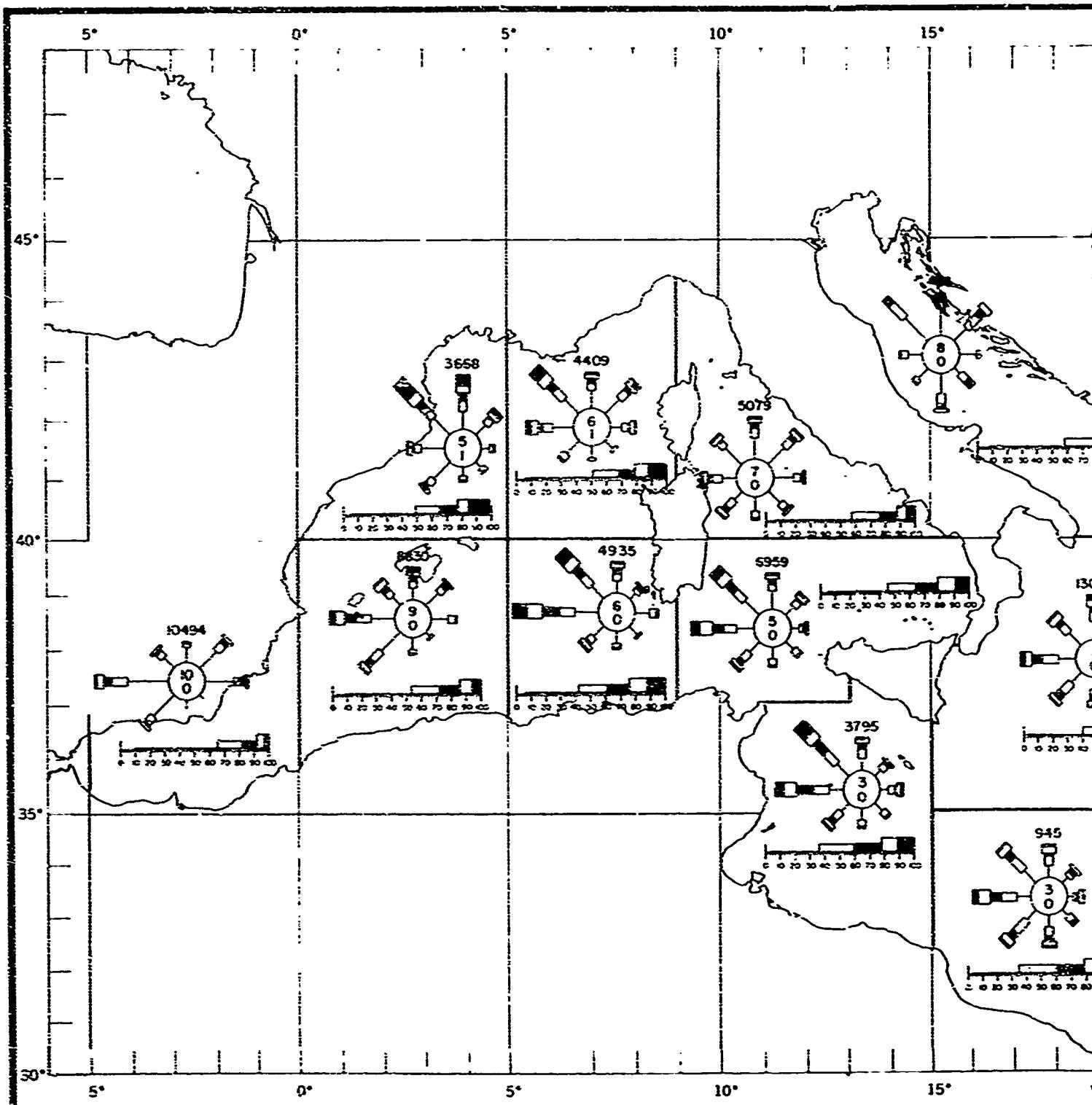
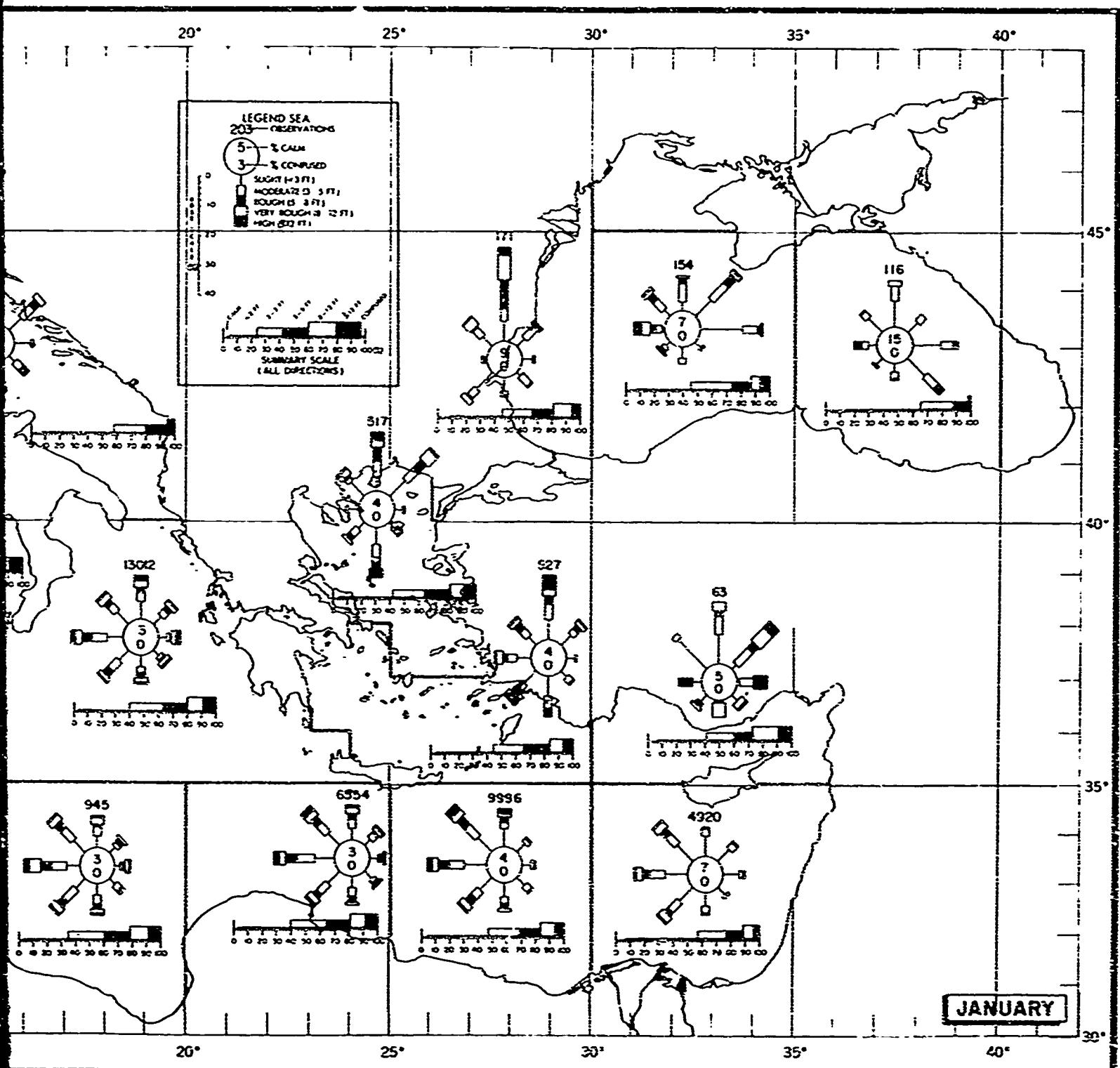


FIGURE 5. STATE OF SEA IN THE MEDI



MED. SEA IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, JANUARY

FIGURE 5. SEA, JANUARY

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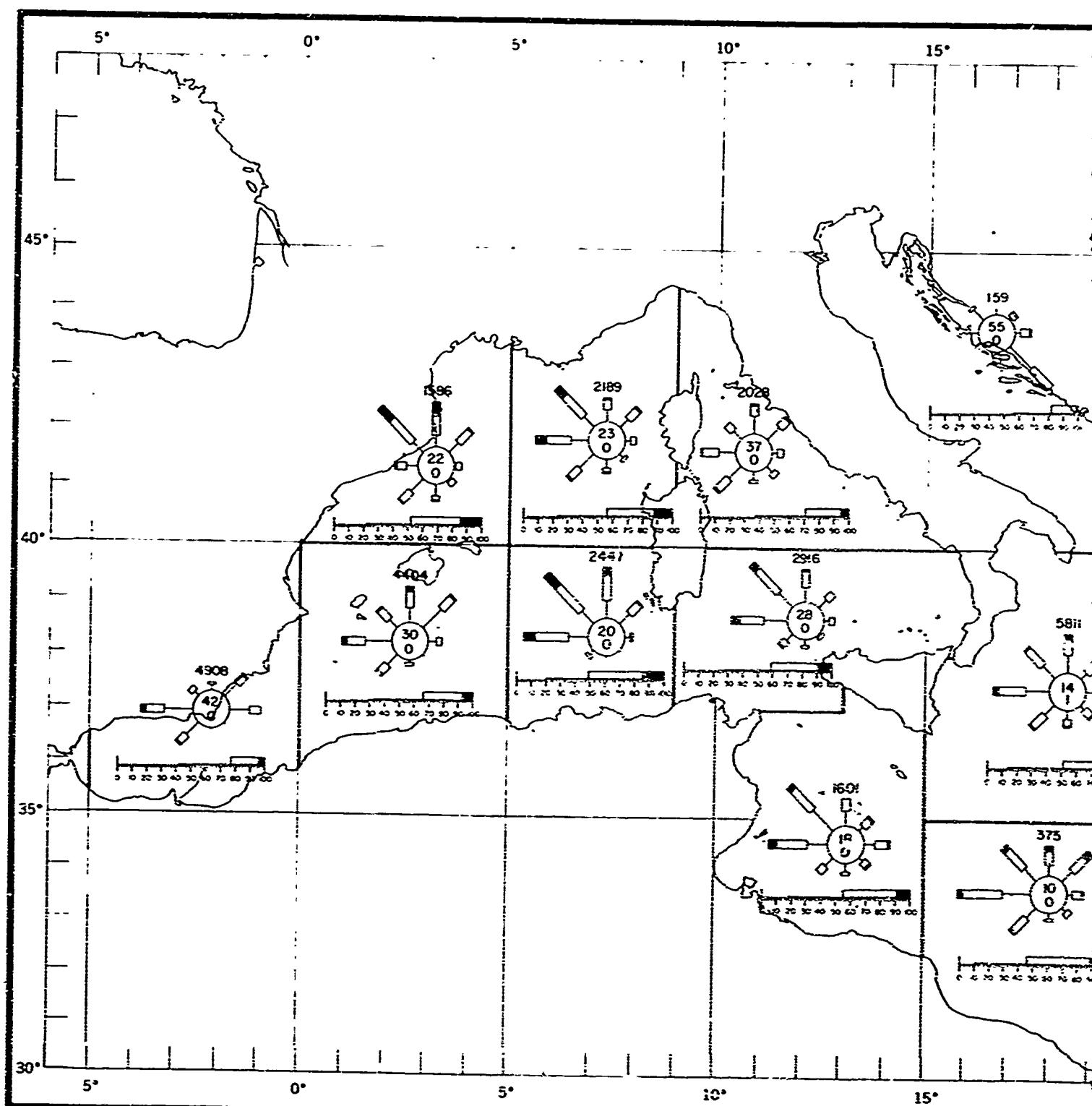
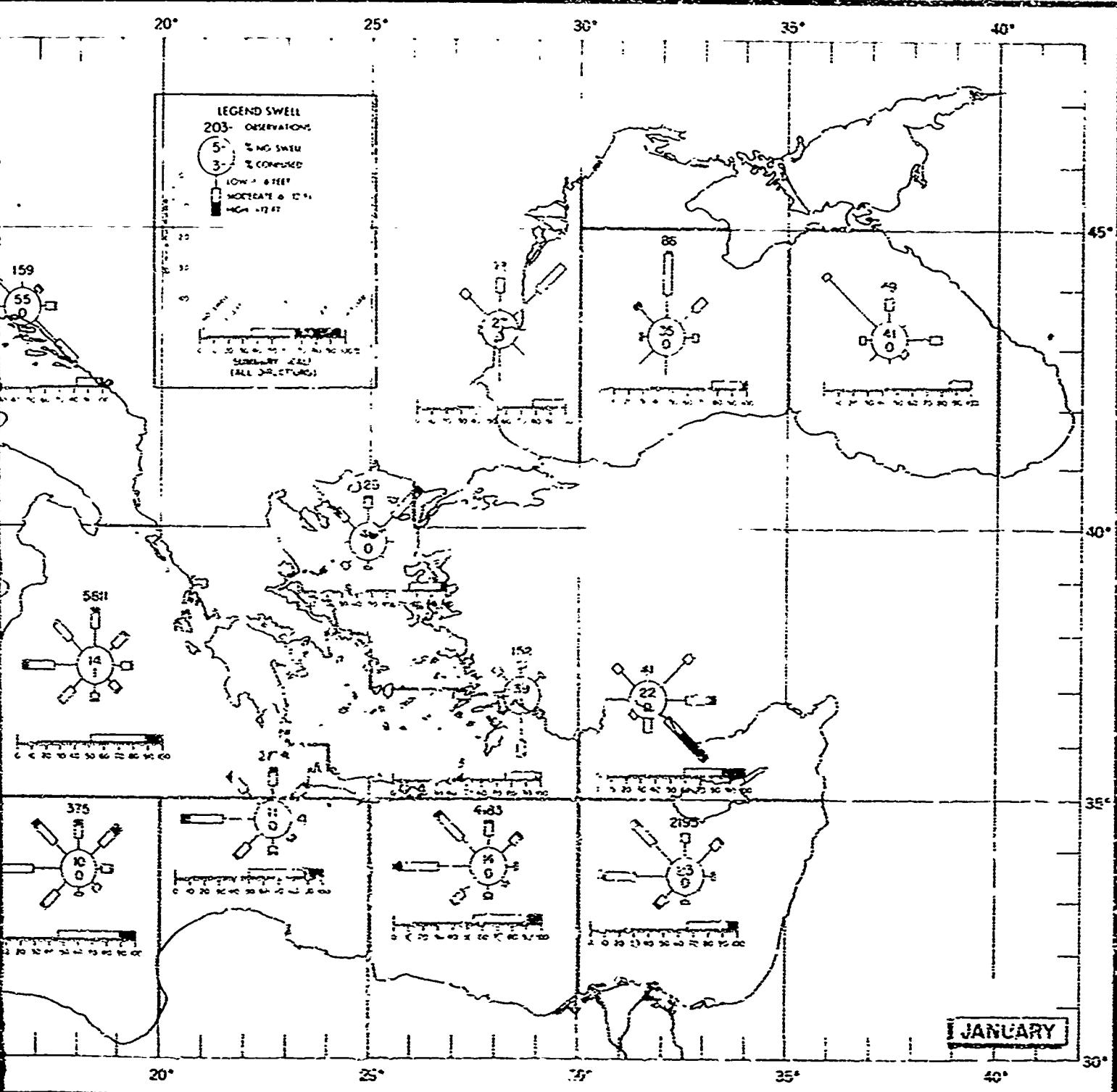


FIGURE 6. SWELL IN THE ME



SWELL IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, JANUARY

FIGURE 6. SWELL, JANUARY

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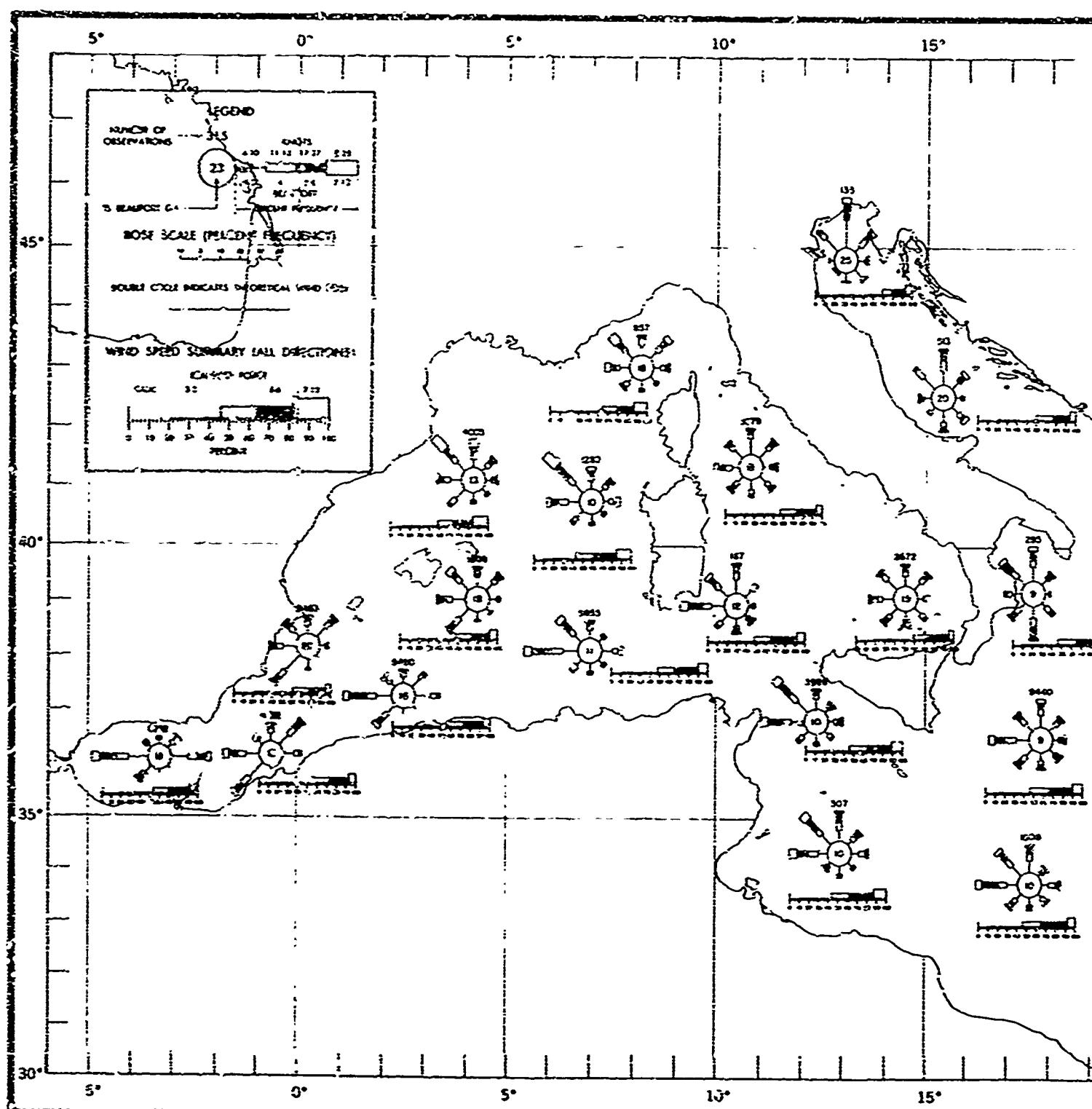


FIGURE 7. SURFACE WIND ROSES, THE MEDITERRANEAN

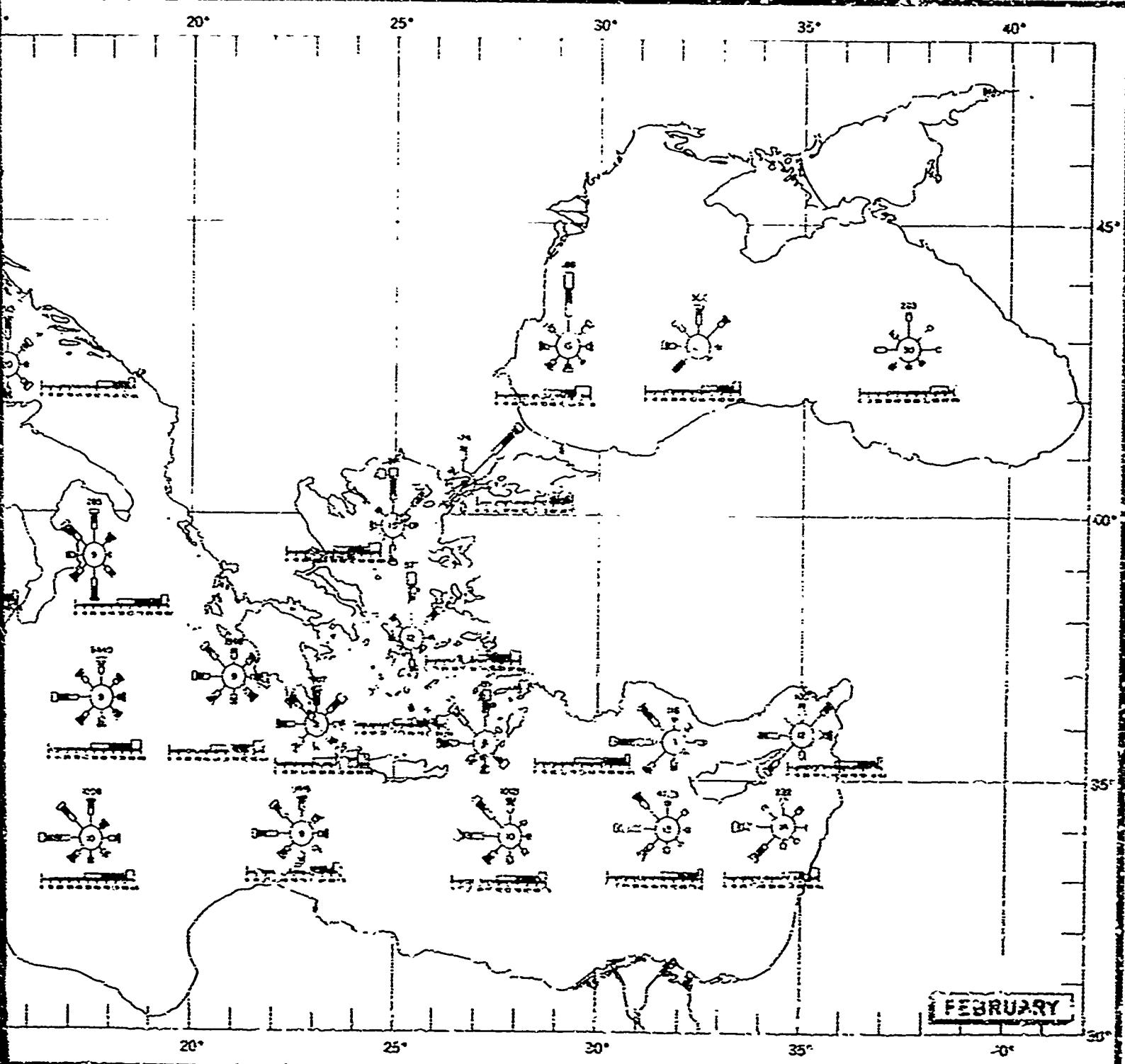


FIGURE 7. WIND ROSES, THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, FEBRUARY

FIGURE 7. SURFACE WINDS, FEBRUARY

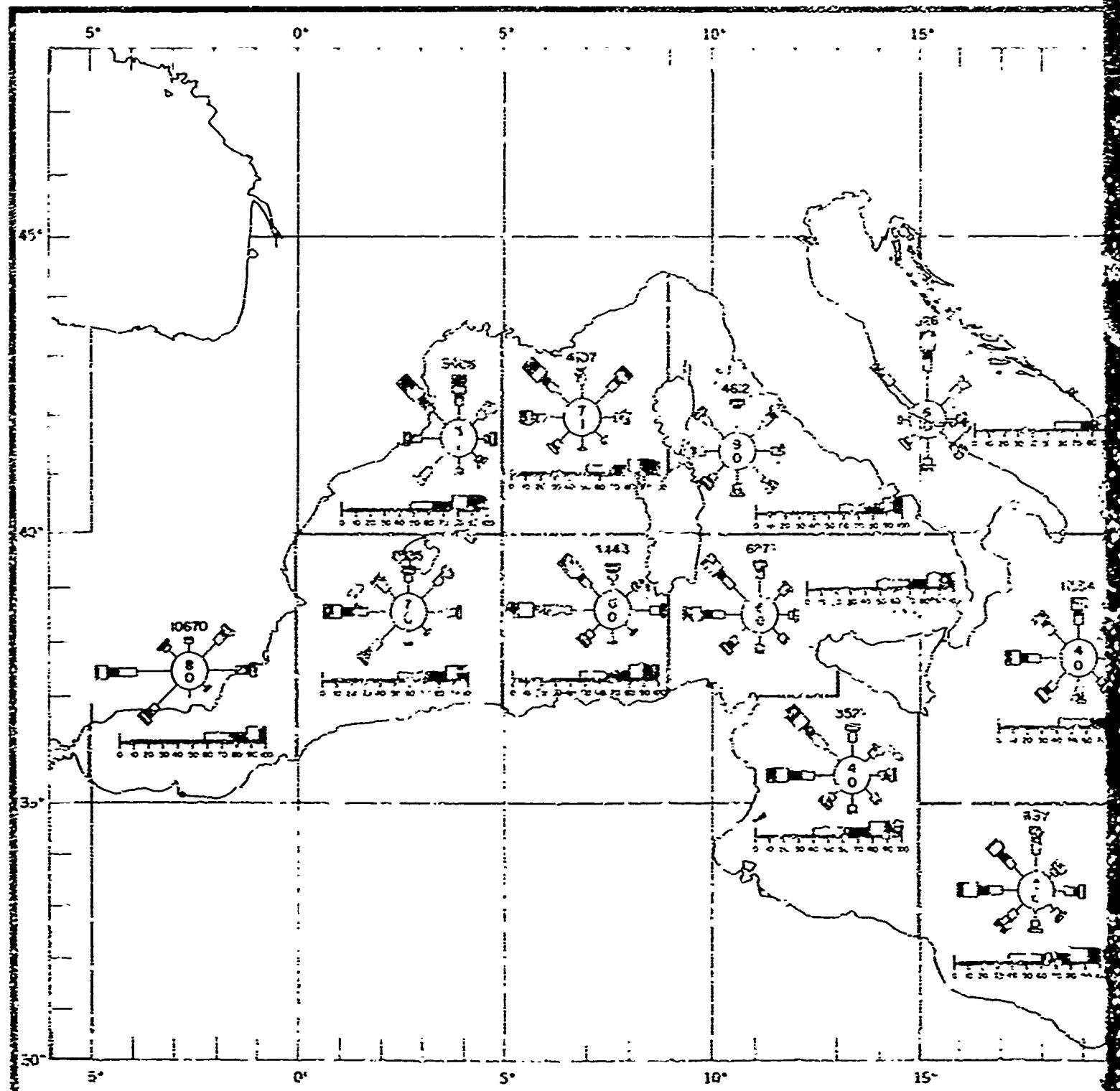
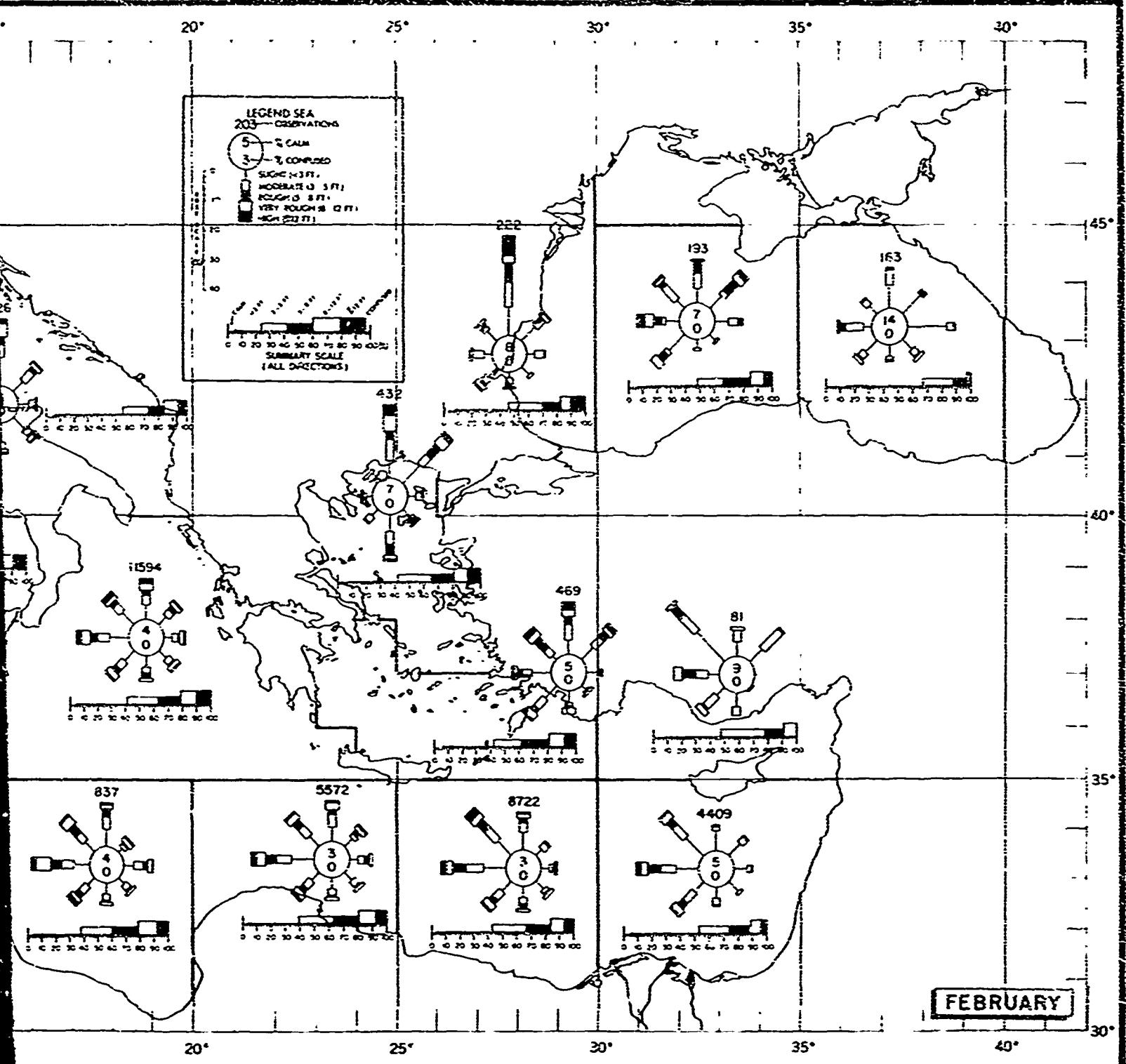


FIGURE 9. STATE OF SEA IN THE MEDITERRANEAN



IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, FEBRUARY

FIGURE 8. SEA, FEBRUARY

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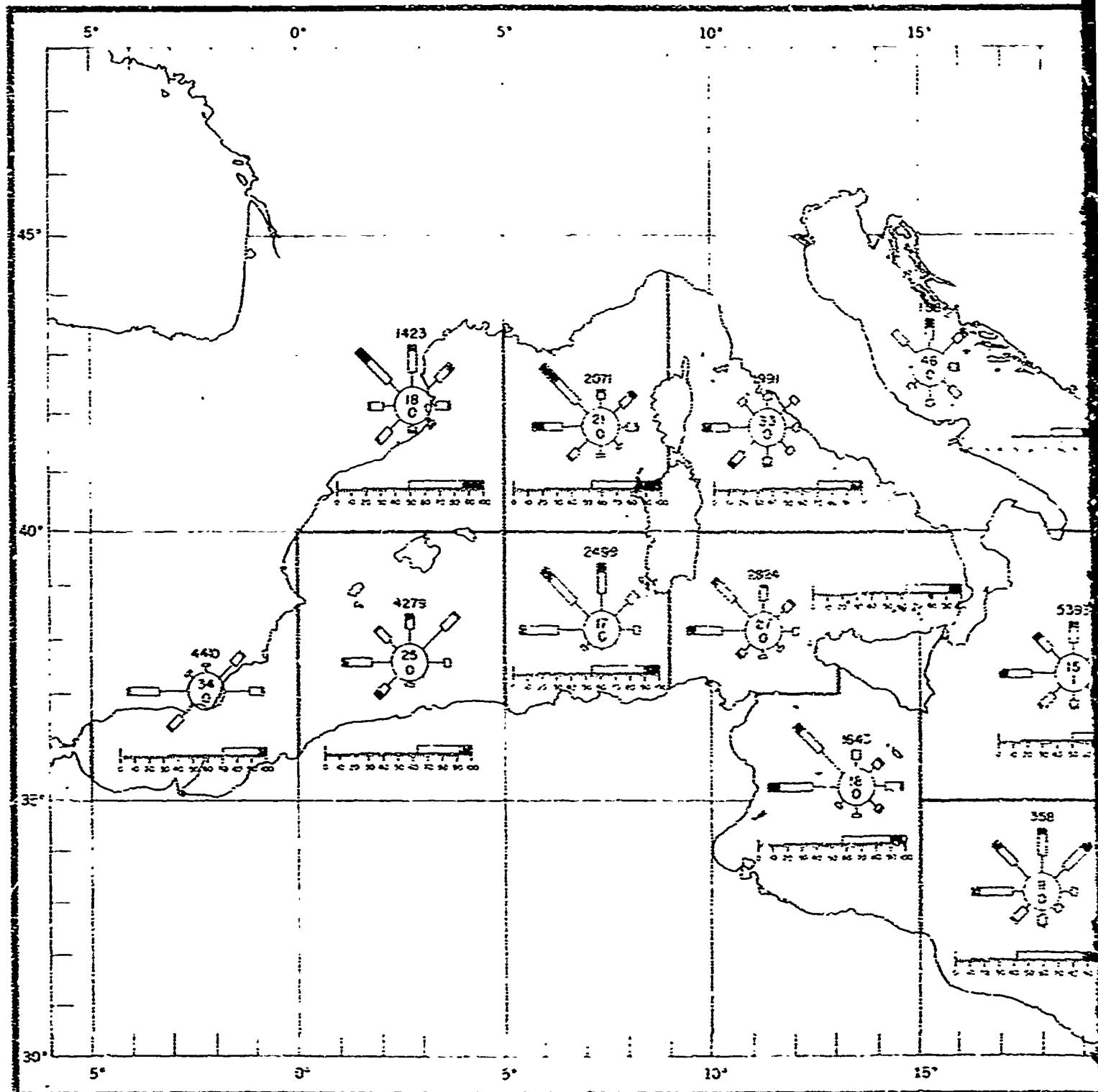
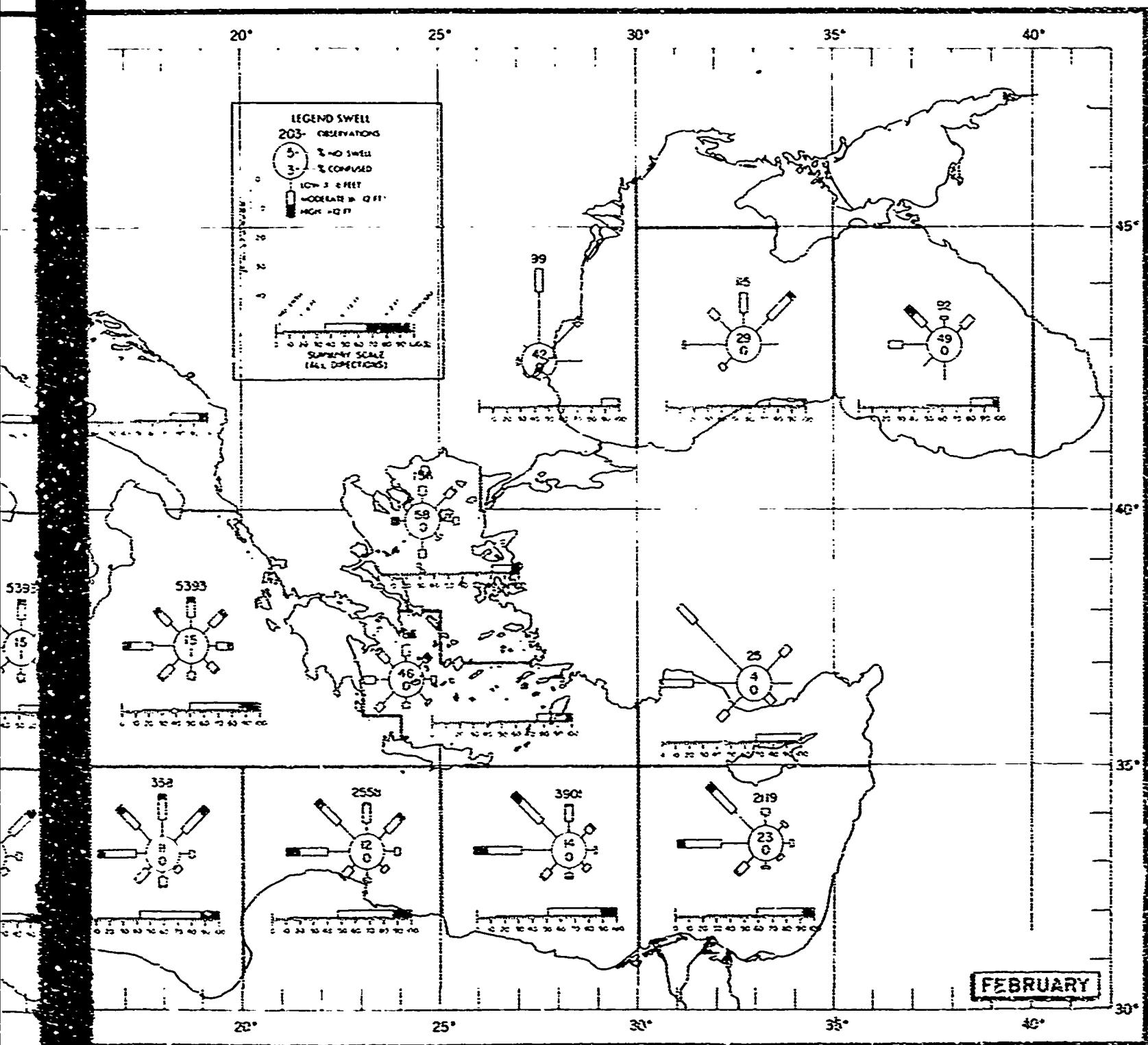


FIGURE 9. STATION SITES

MAP 1



IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, FEBRUARY

FIGURE 9. SWELL IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, FEBRUARY

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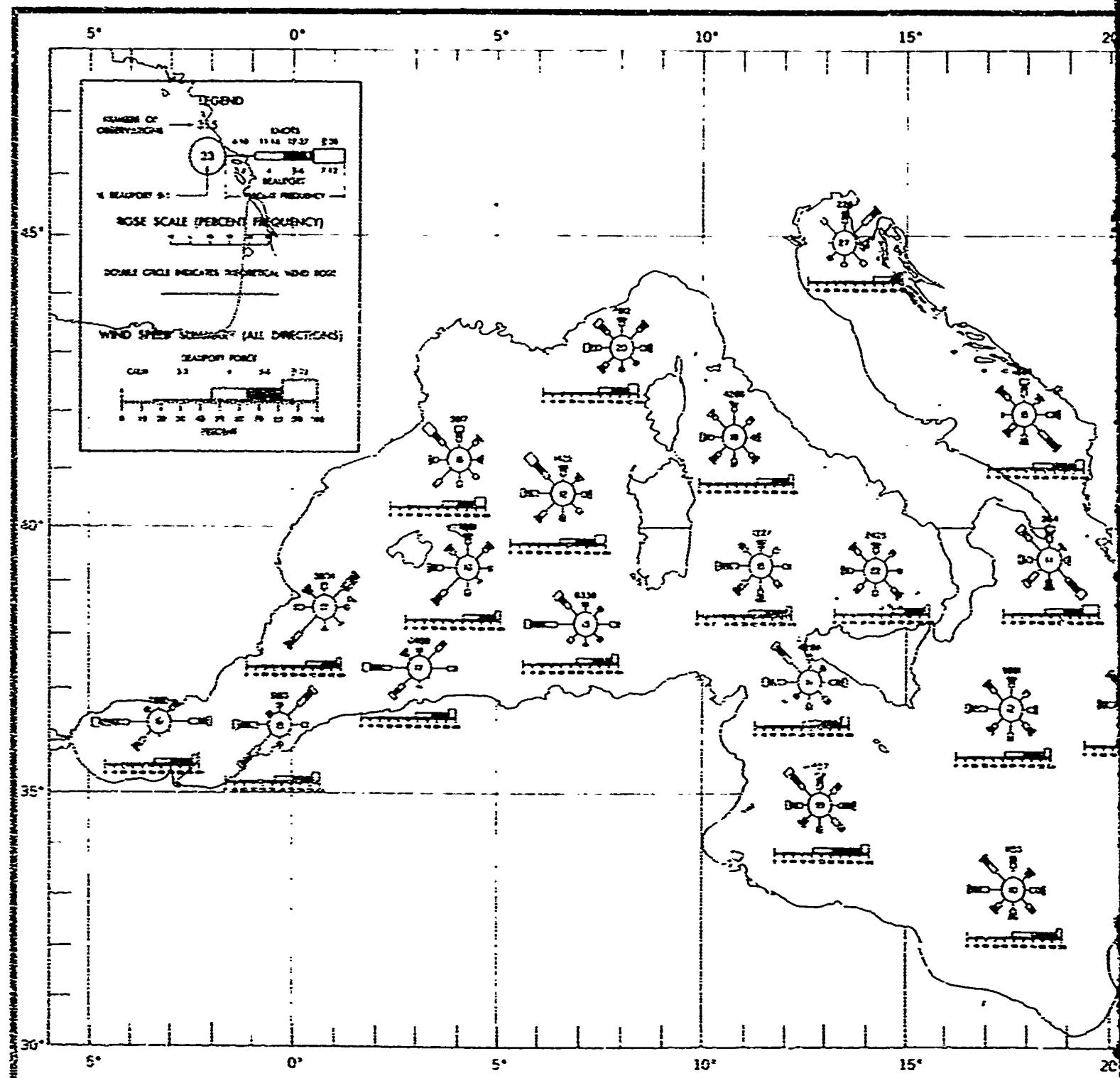


FIGURE 10. SURFACE WIND ROSES, THE MEDITERRANEAN

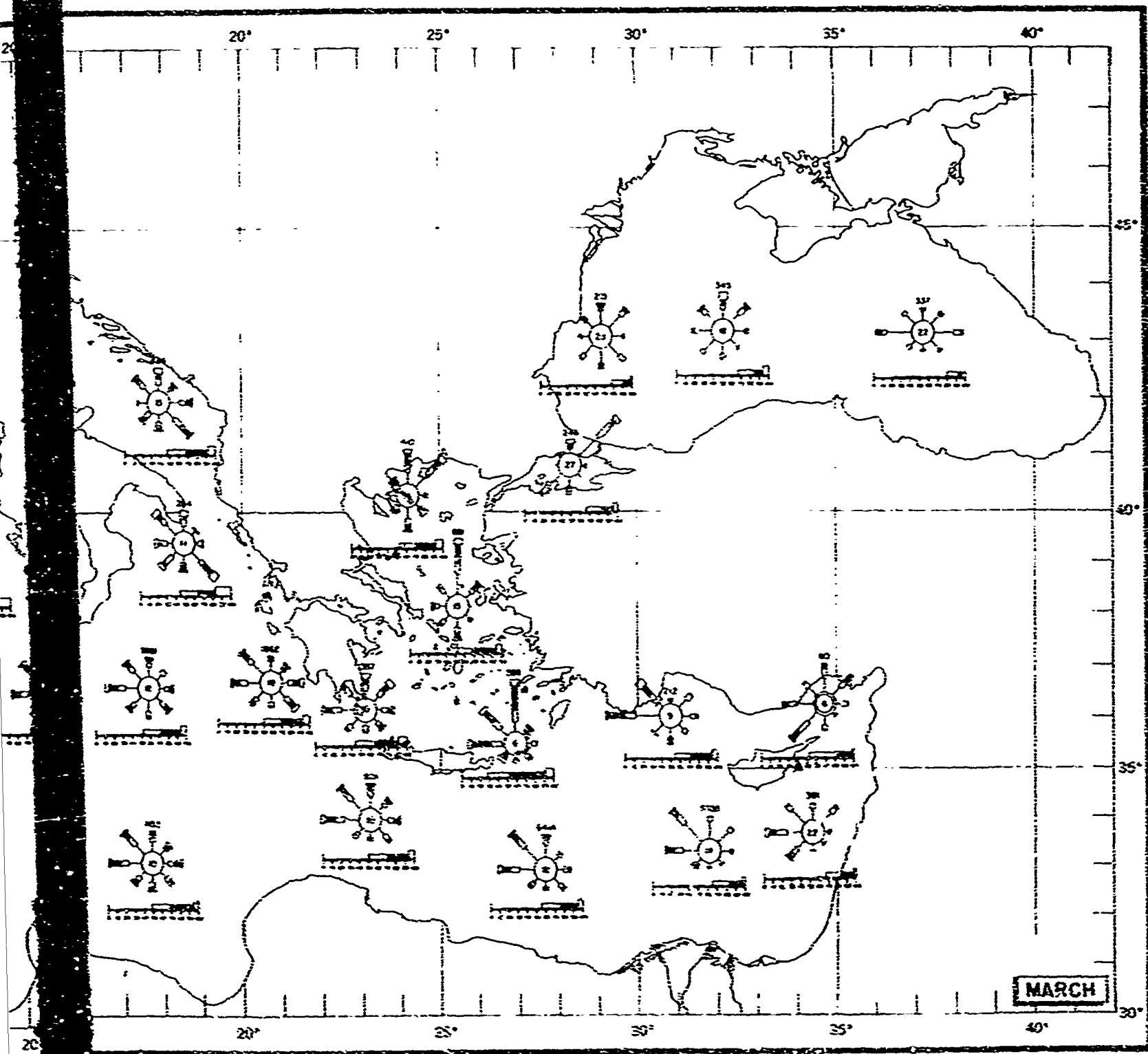


FIGURE 10. SURFACE WINDS, MARCH

FIGURE 10. SURFACE WINDS, MARCH

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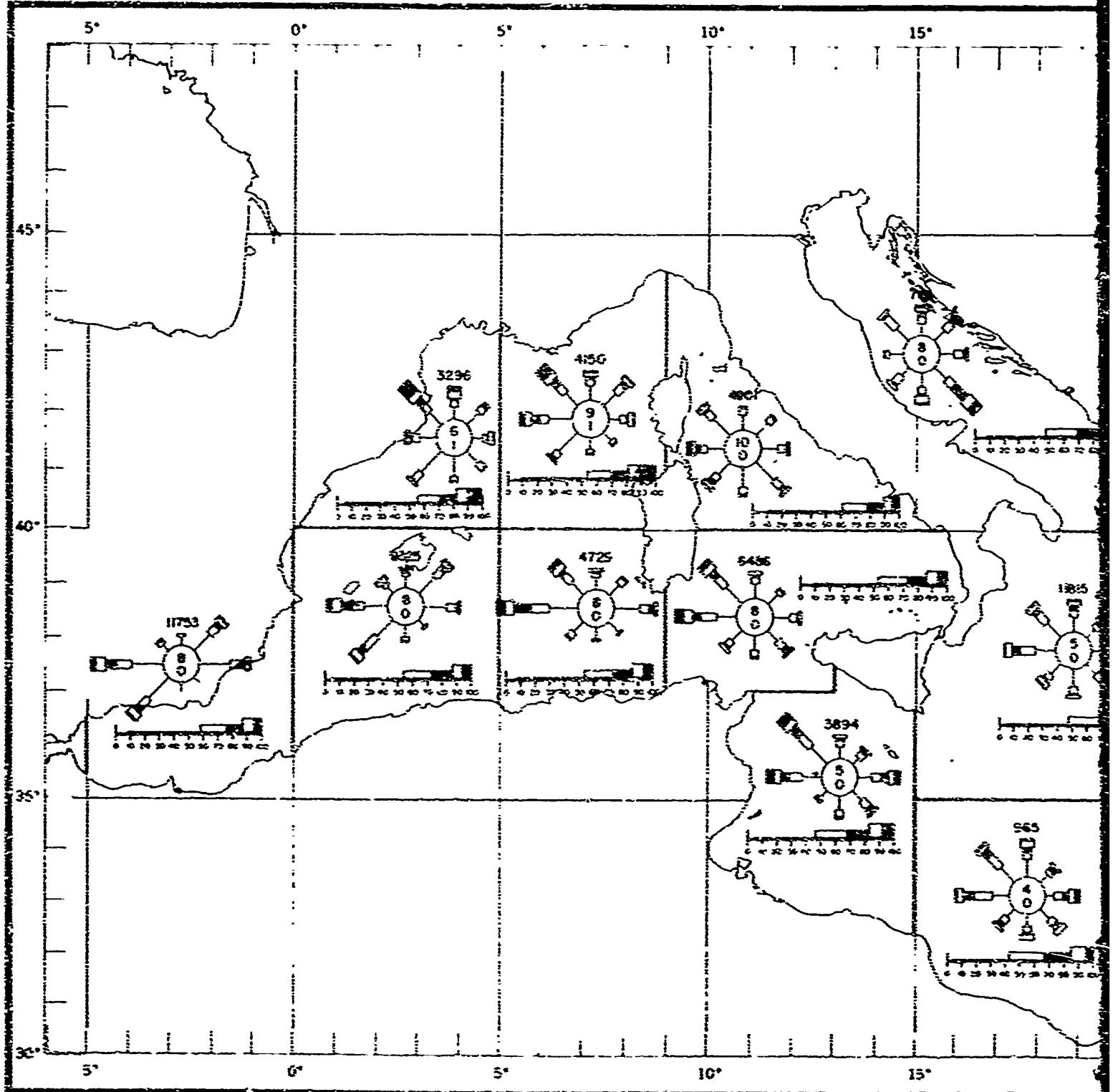
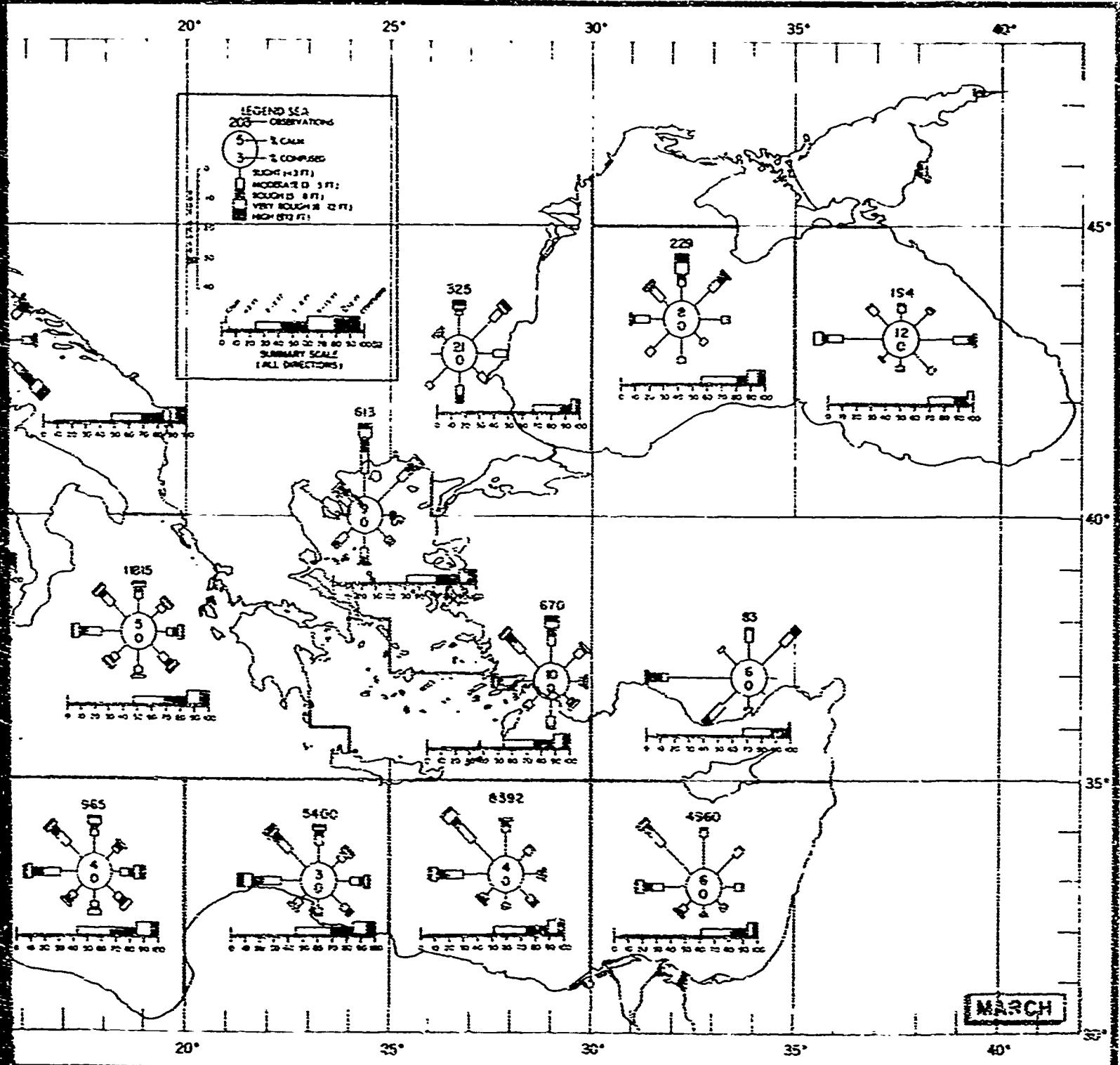


FIGURE 11. STATE OF SEA IN THE



STATE OF SEA IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, MARCH

FIGURE II. SEA, MARCH

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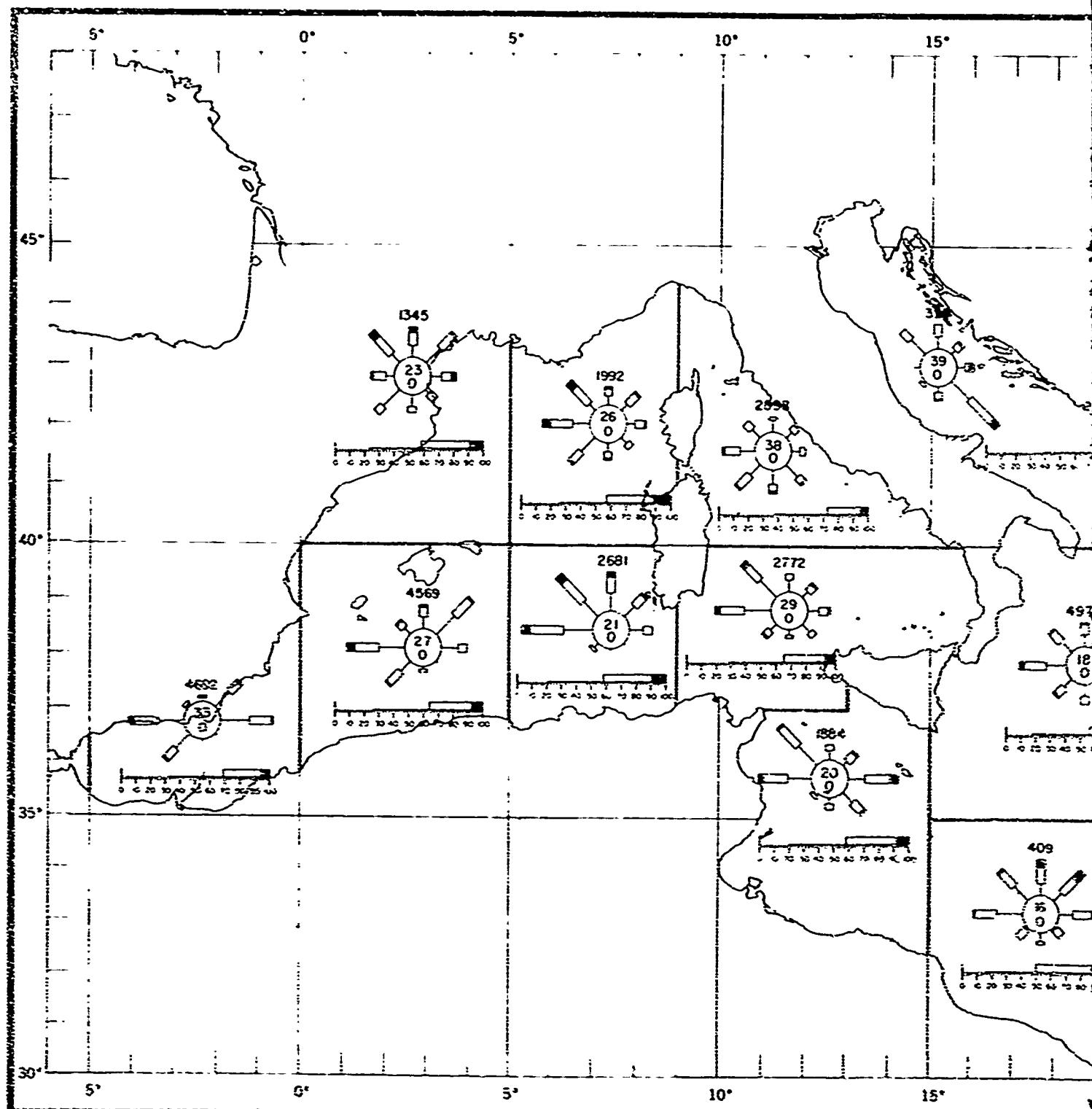
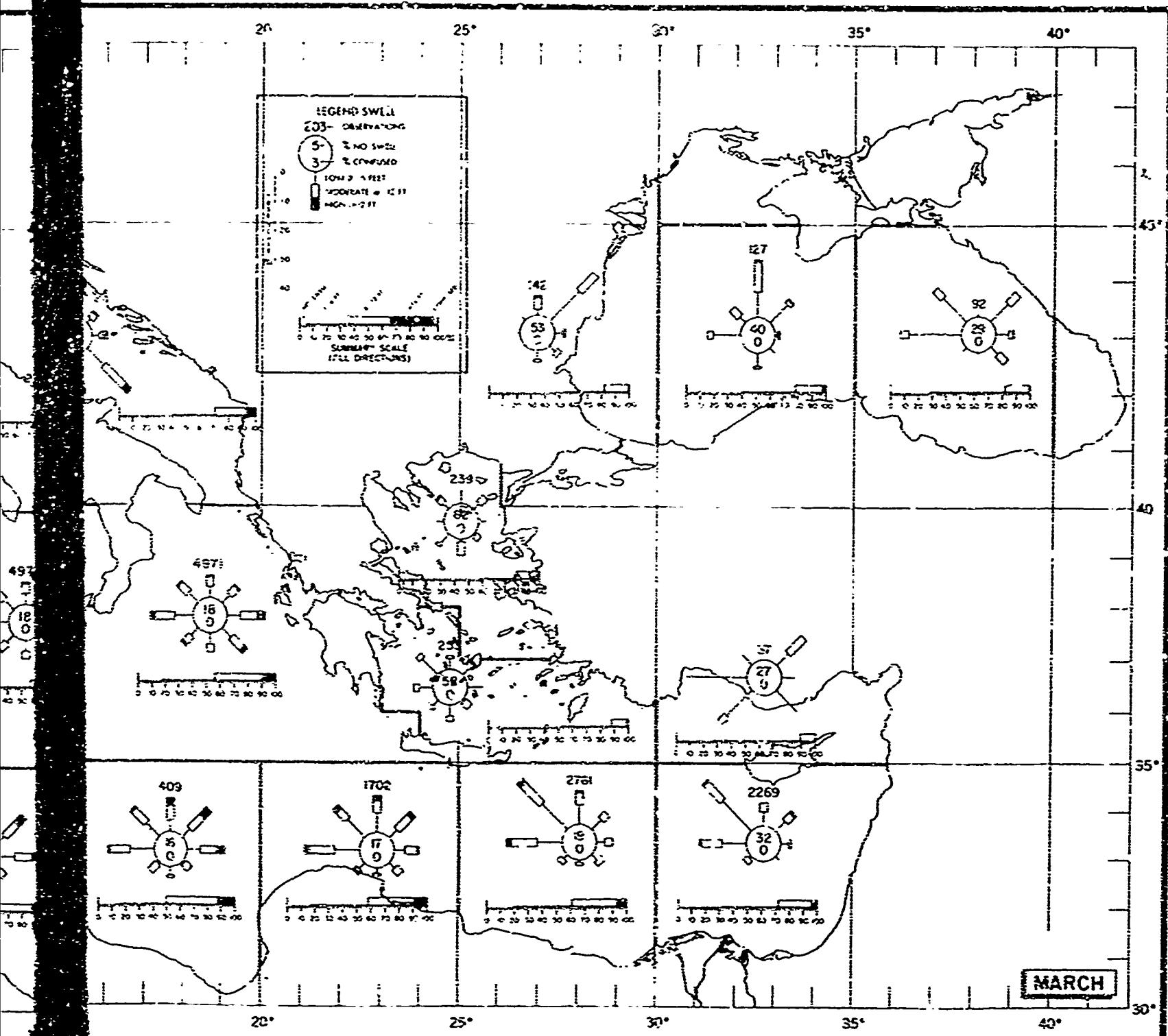


FIGURE 12. SWELL IN THE MEDITERRAN



FRANCE IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, MARCH

FIGURE 12. SWELL, MARCH

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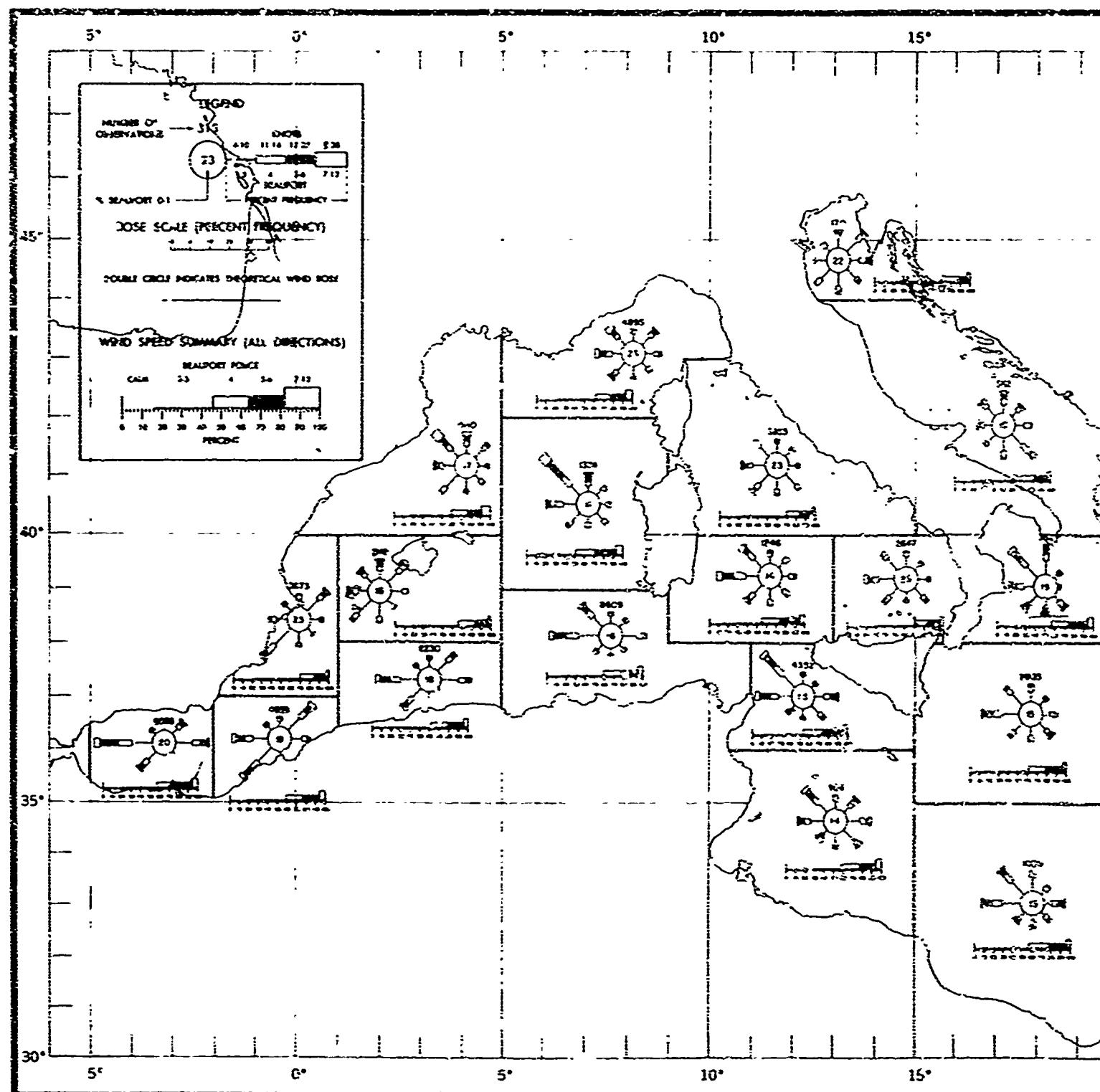


FIGURE 13. SURFACE WIND ROSES, THE MEDITERRANEAN

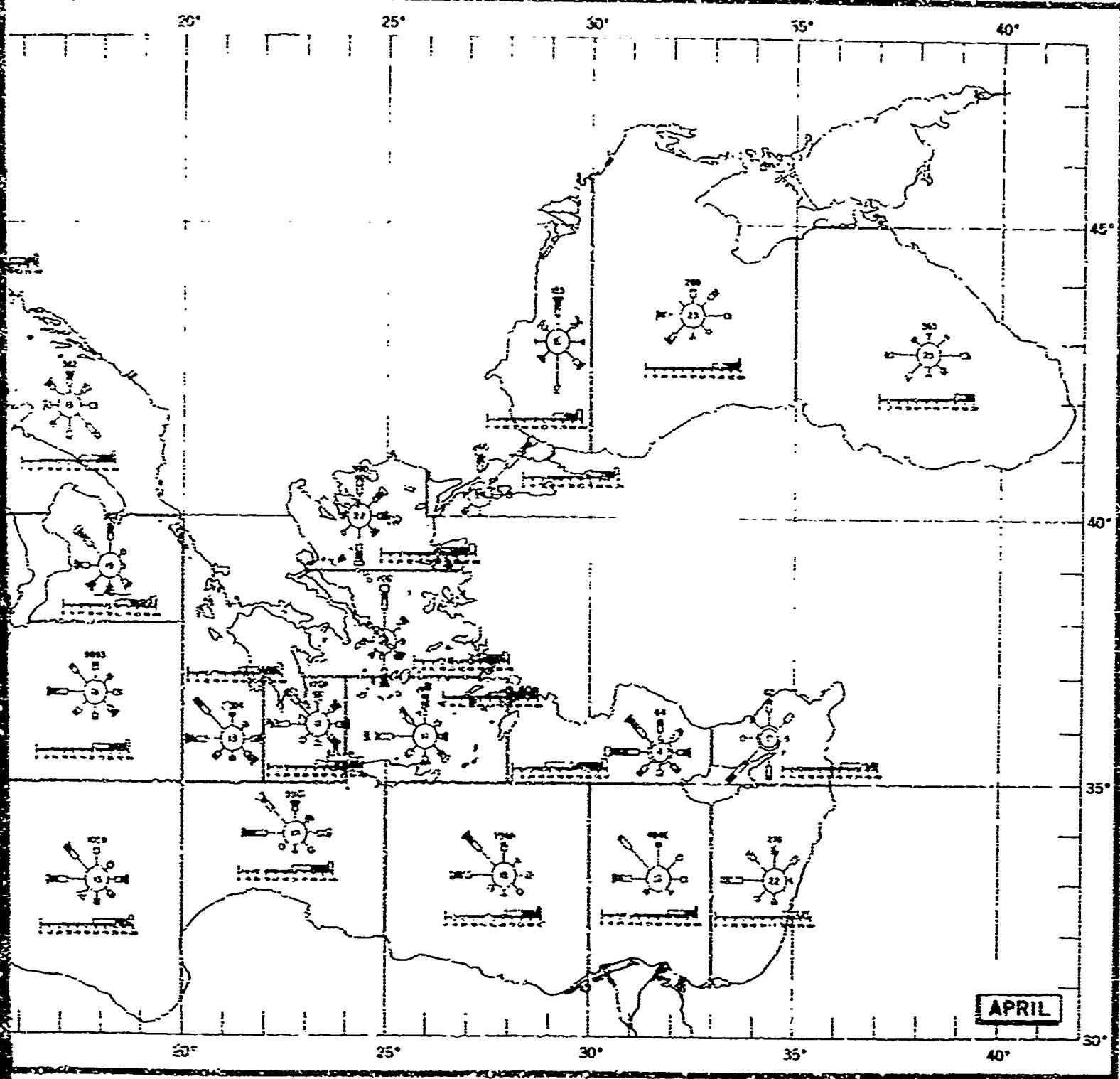


FIGURE 13. SURFACE WINDS, APRIL

FIGURE 13. SURFACE WINDS, APRIL

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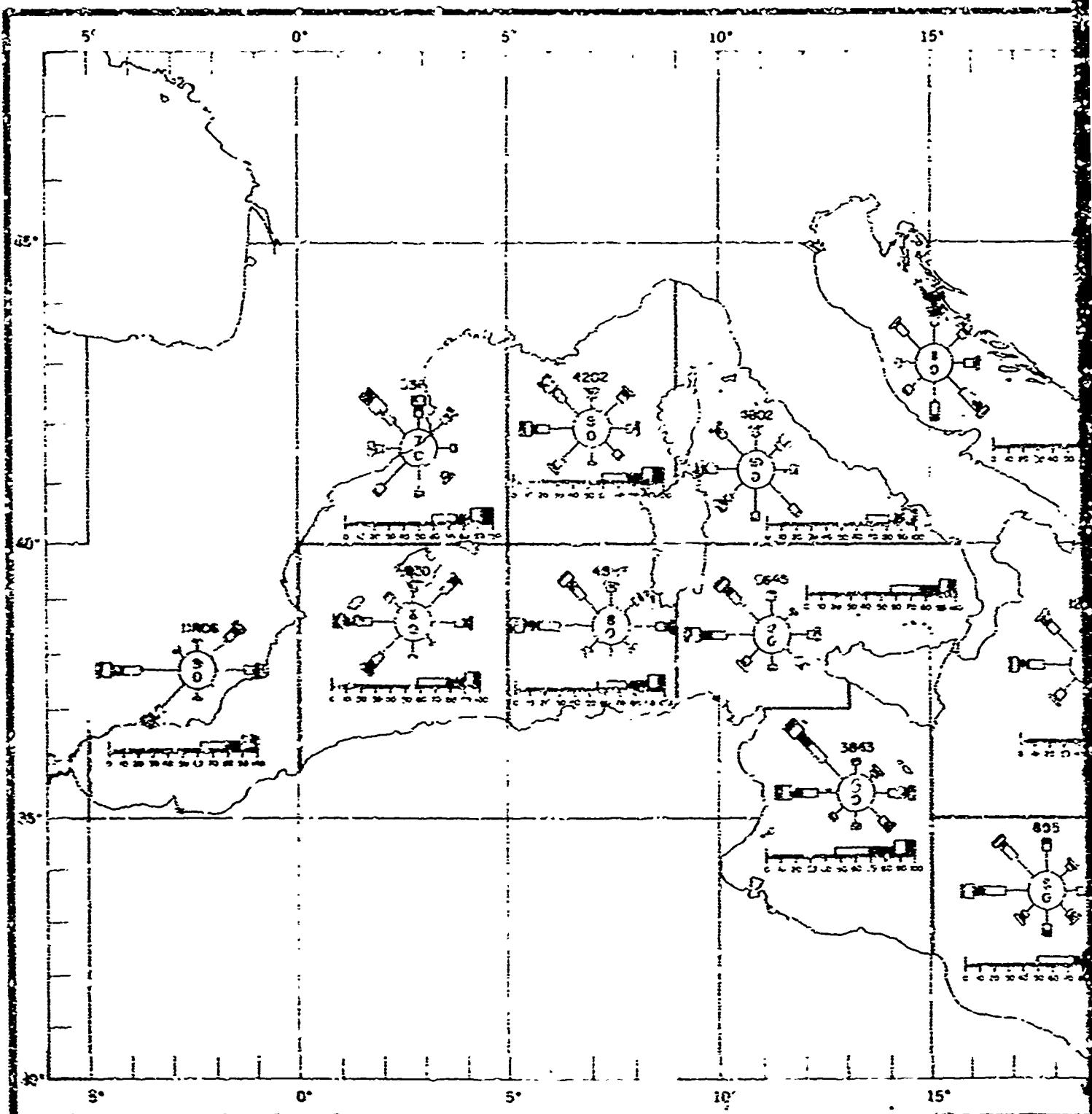
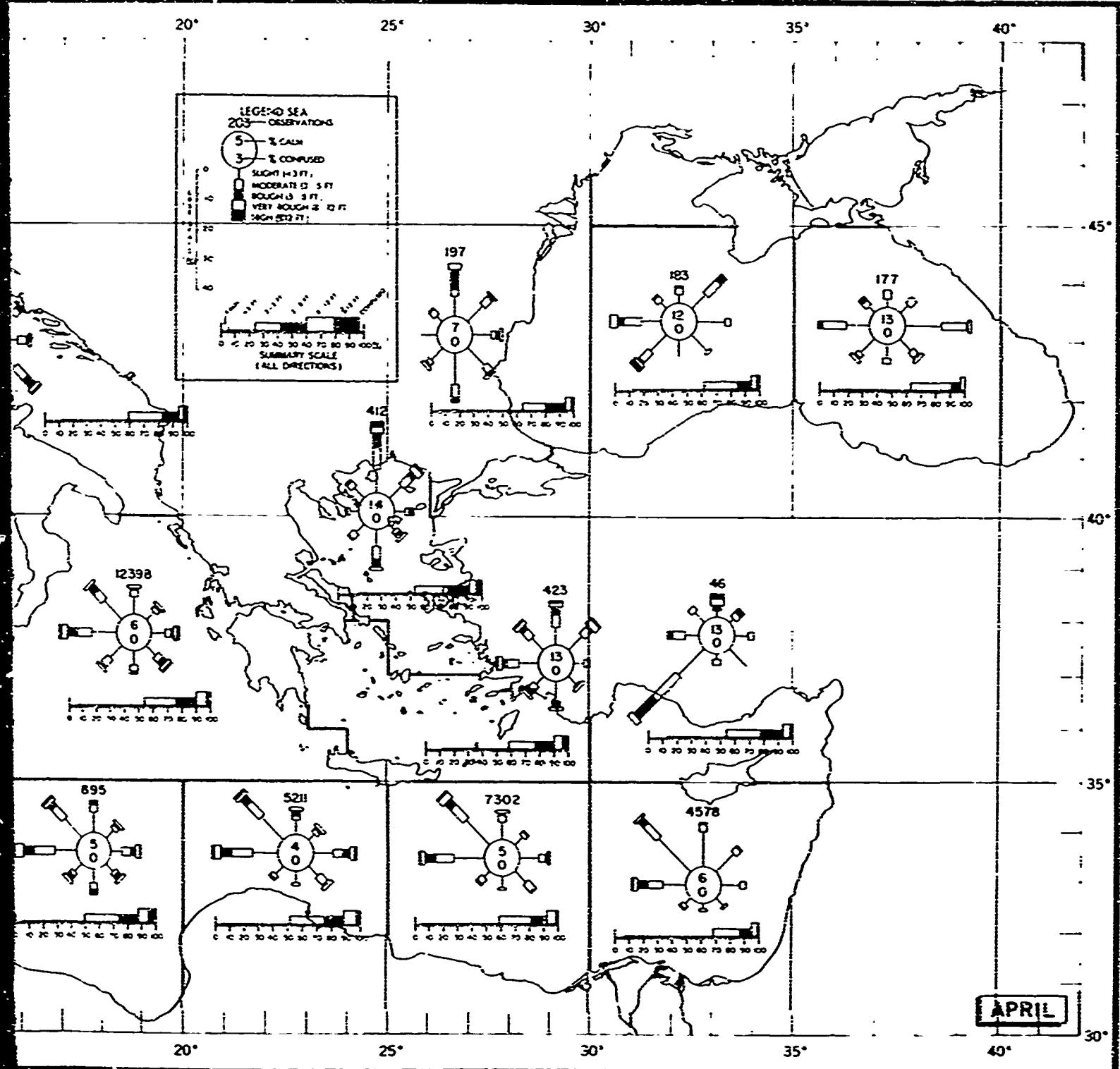


FIGURE 14. STATE OF SEA IN THE MEDI



SEA IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, APRIL

FIGURE 14. SEA, APRIL

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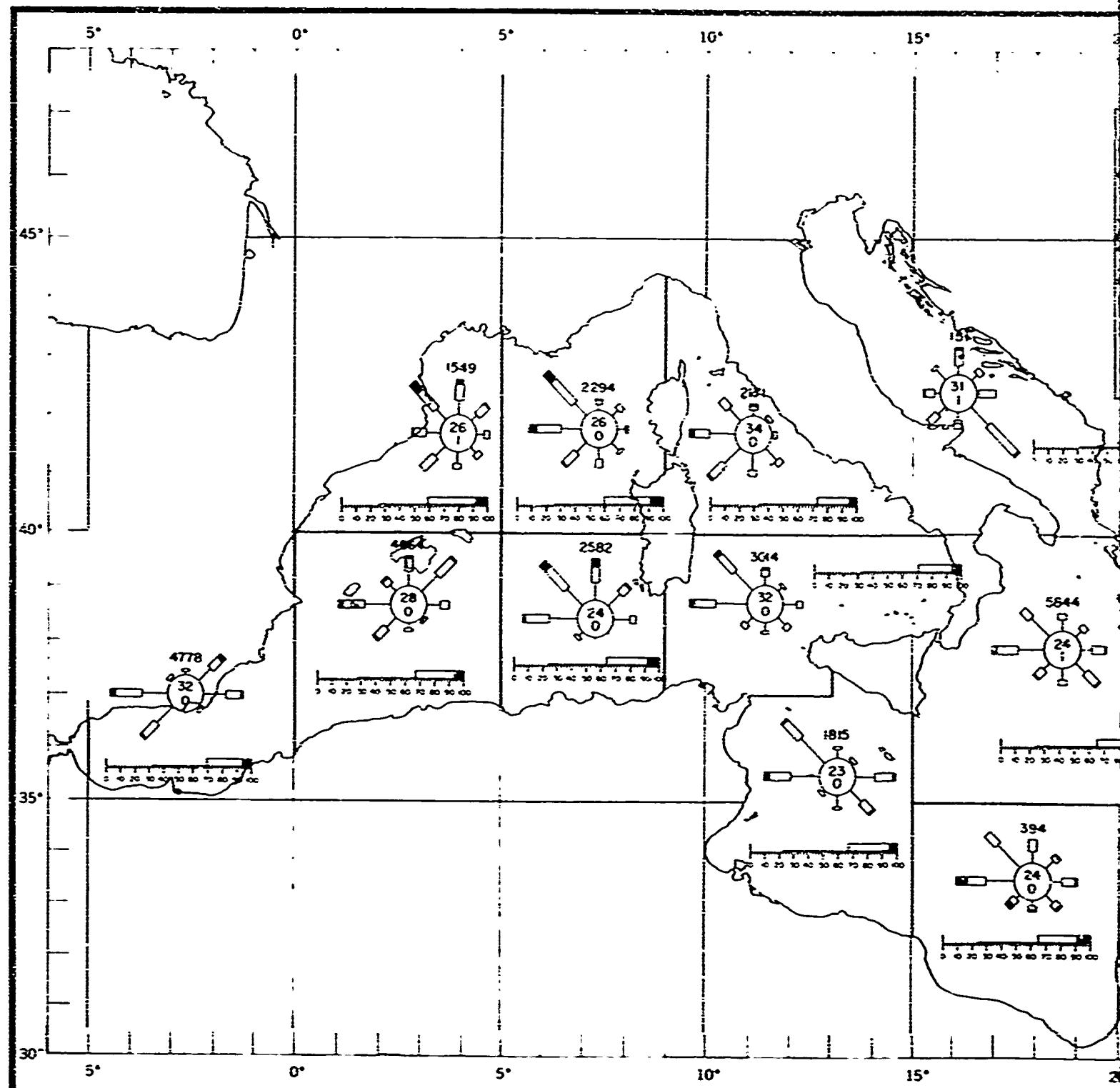
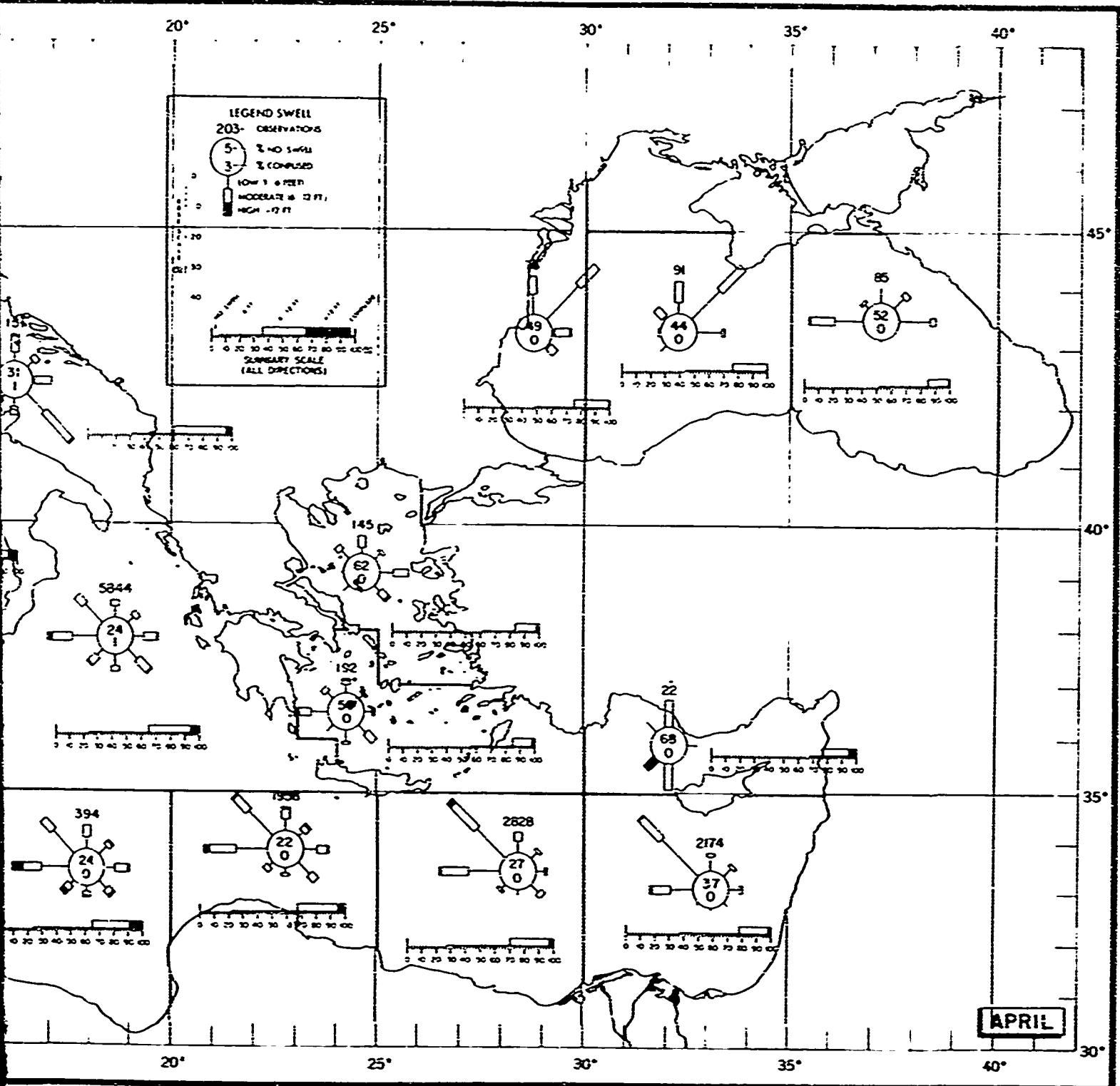


FIGURE 15. SWELL IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA



N SEA MEDITERRANEAN SEA, APRIL

FIGURE 15. SWELL, APRIL

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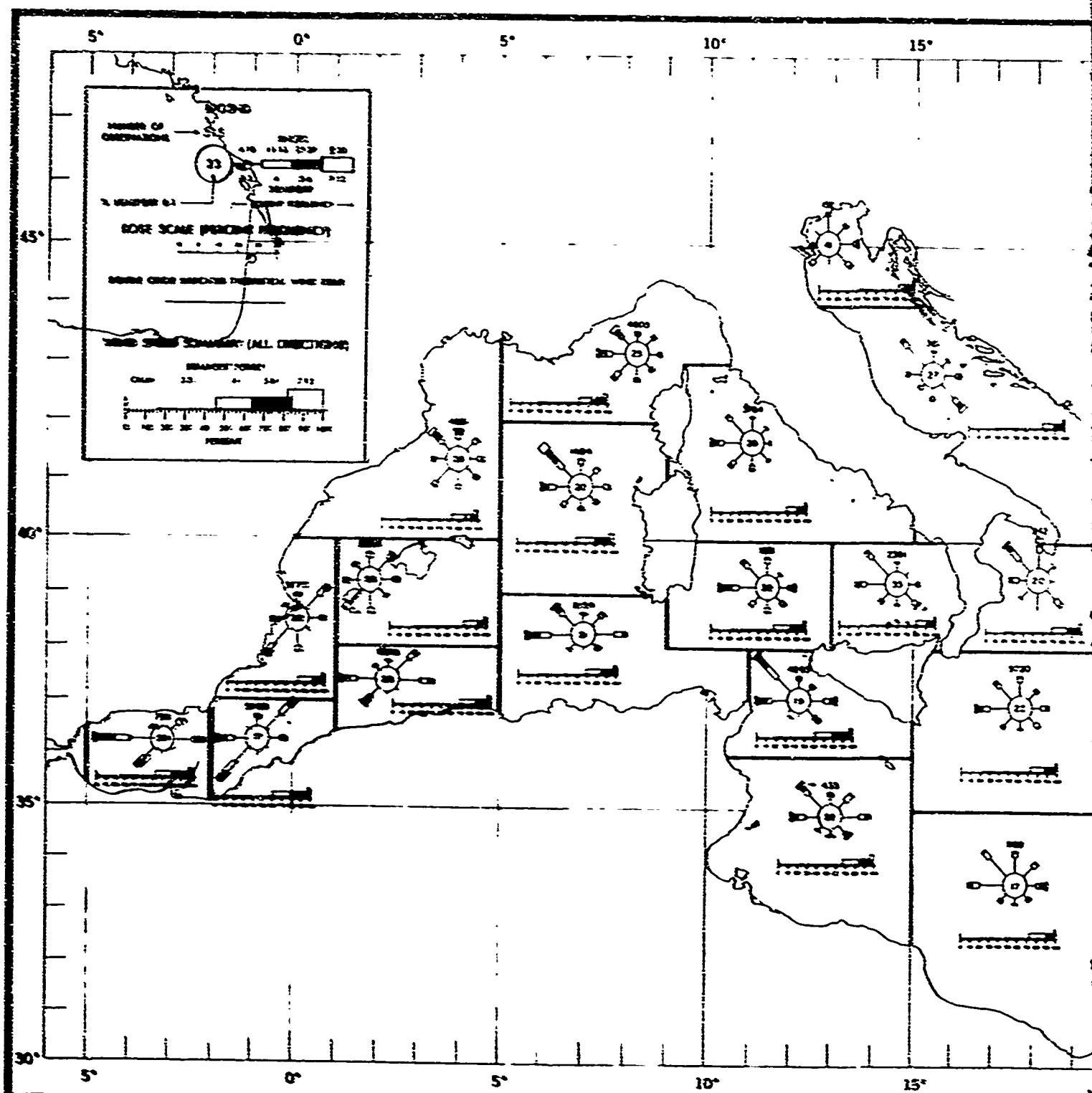
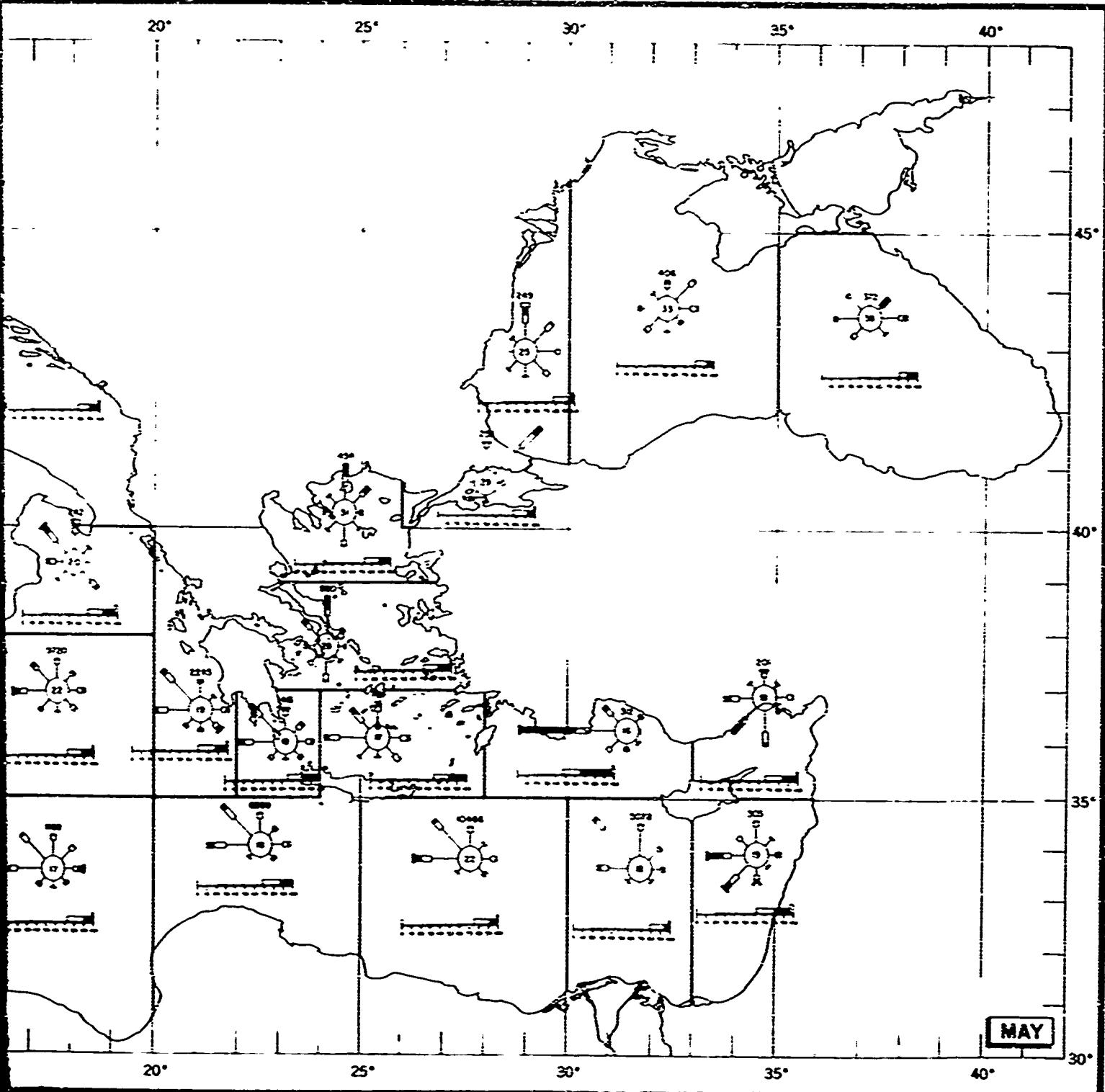


FIGURE 16. SURFACE WIND ROSES, THE MEDITERRANEAN.



THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, MAY

FIGURE 16. SURFACE WINDS, MAY

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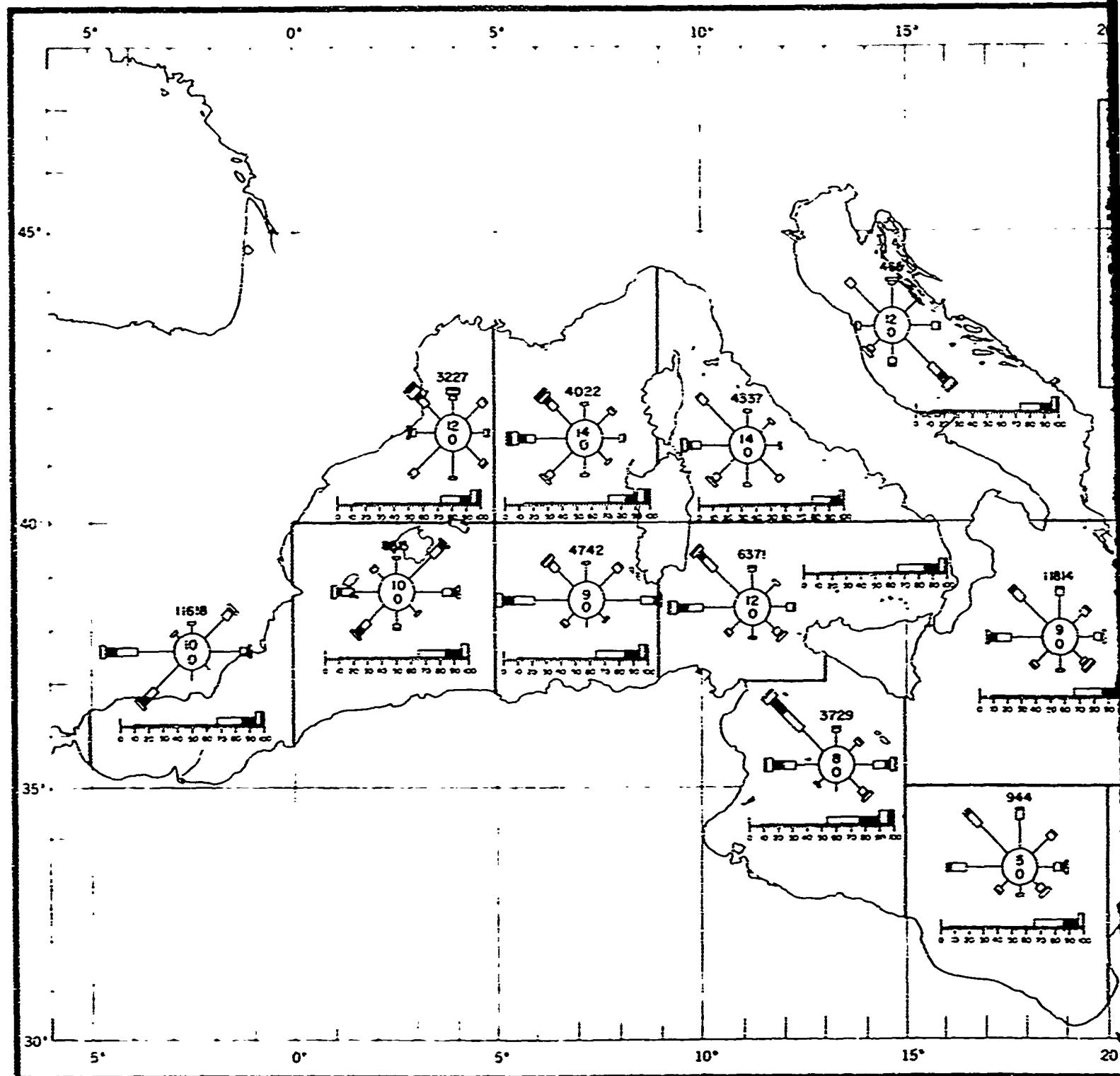
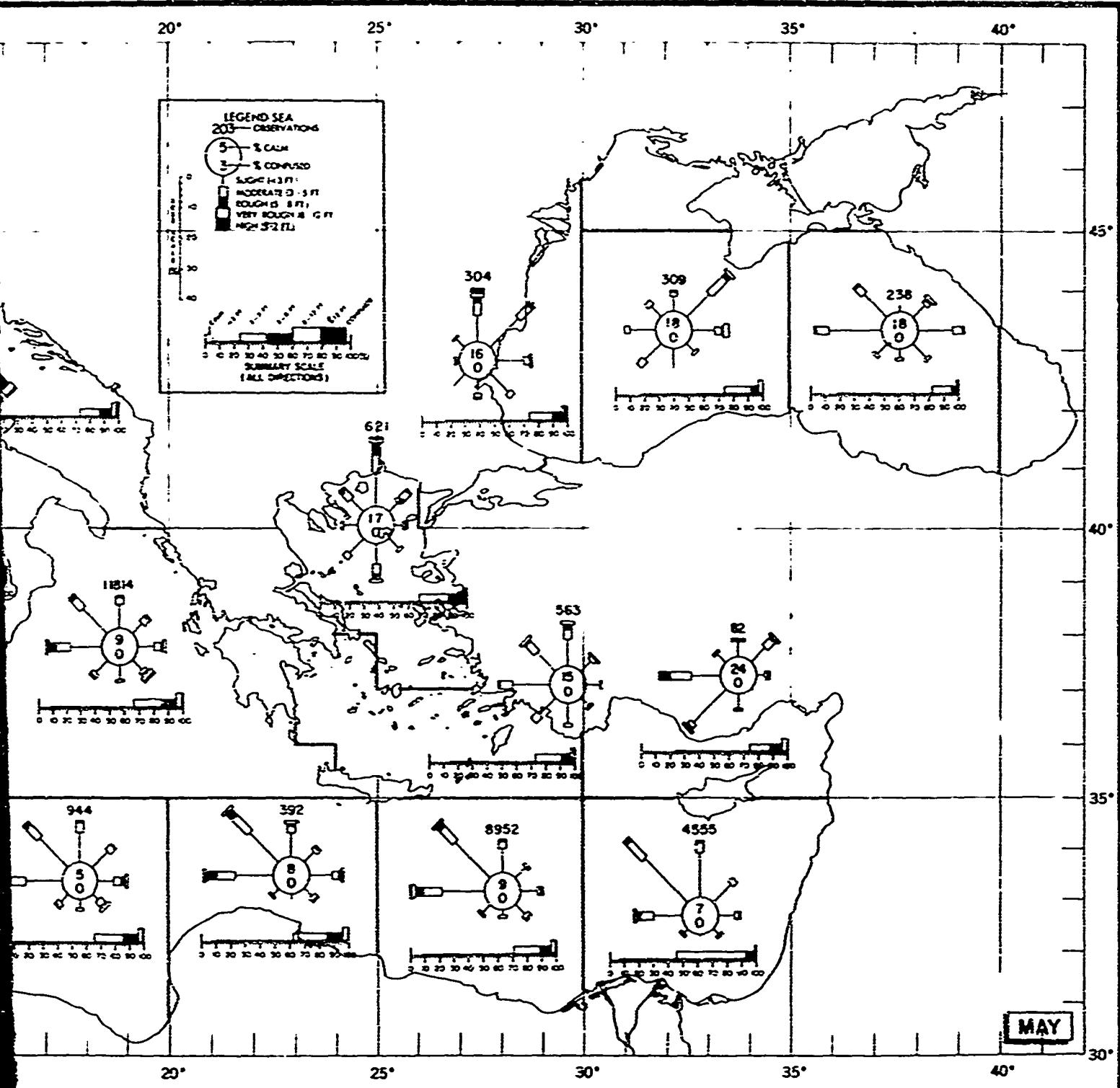


FIGURE 17. STATE OF SEA IN THE MEDITERRANEAN



IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, MAY

FIGURE 17. SEA, MAY

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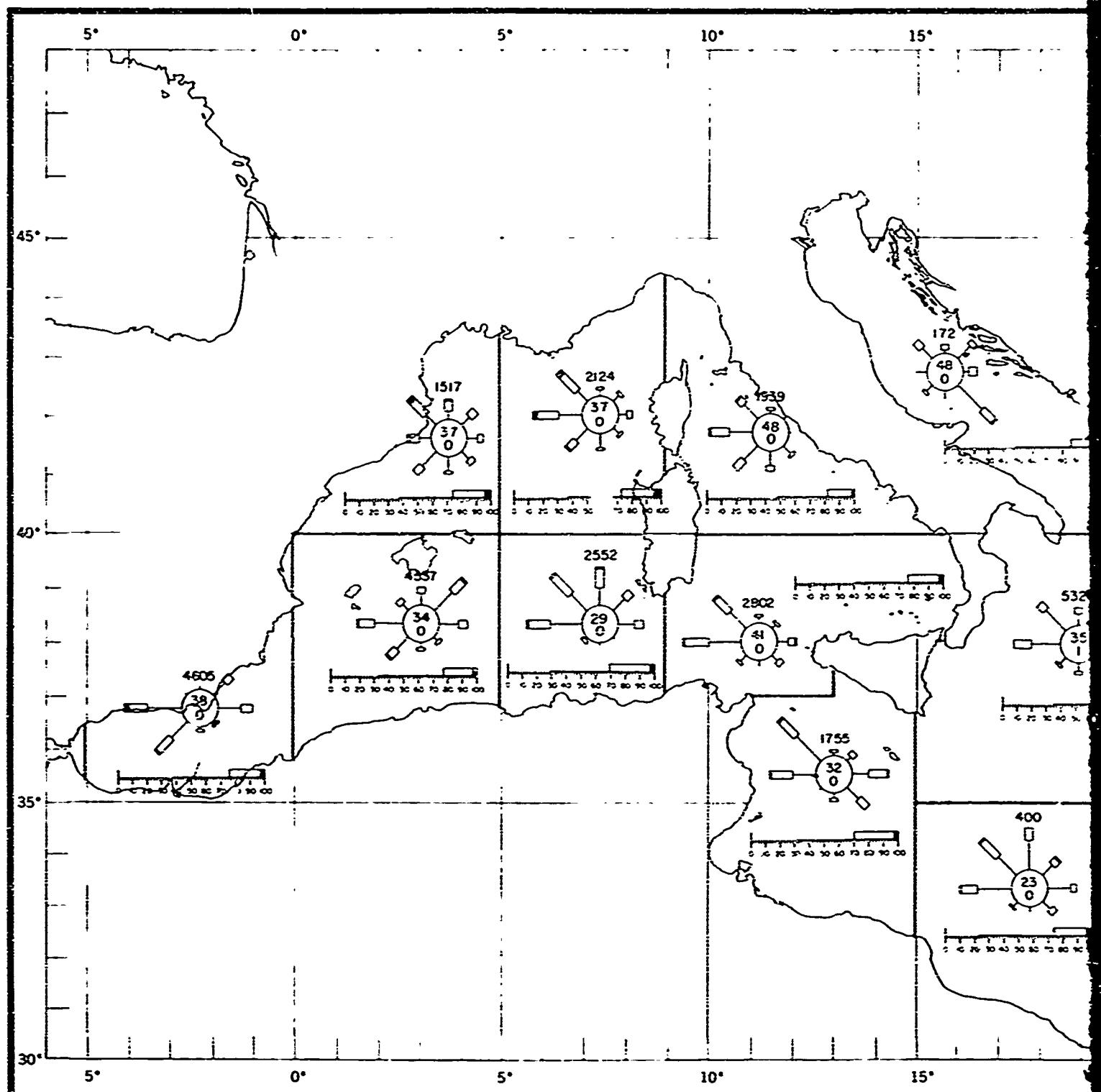
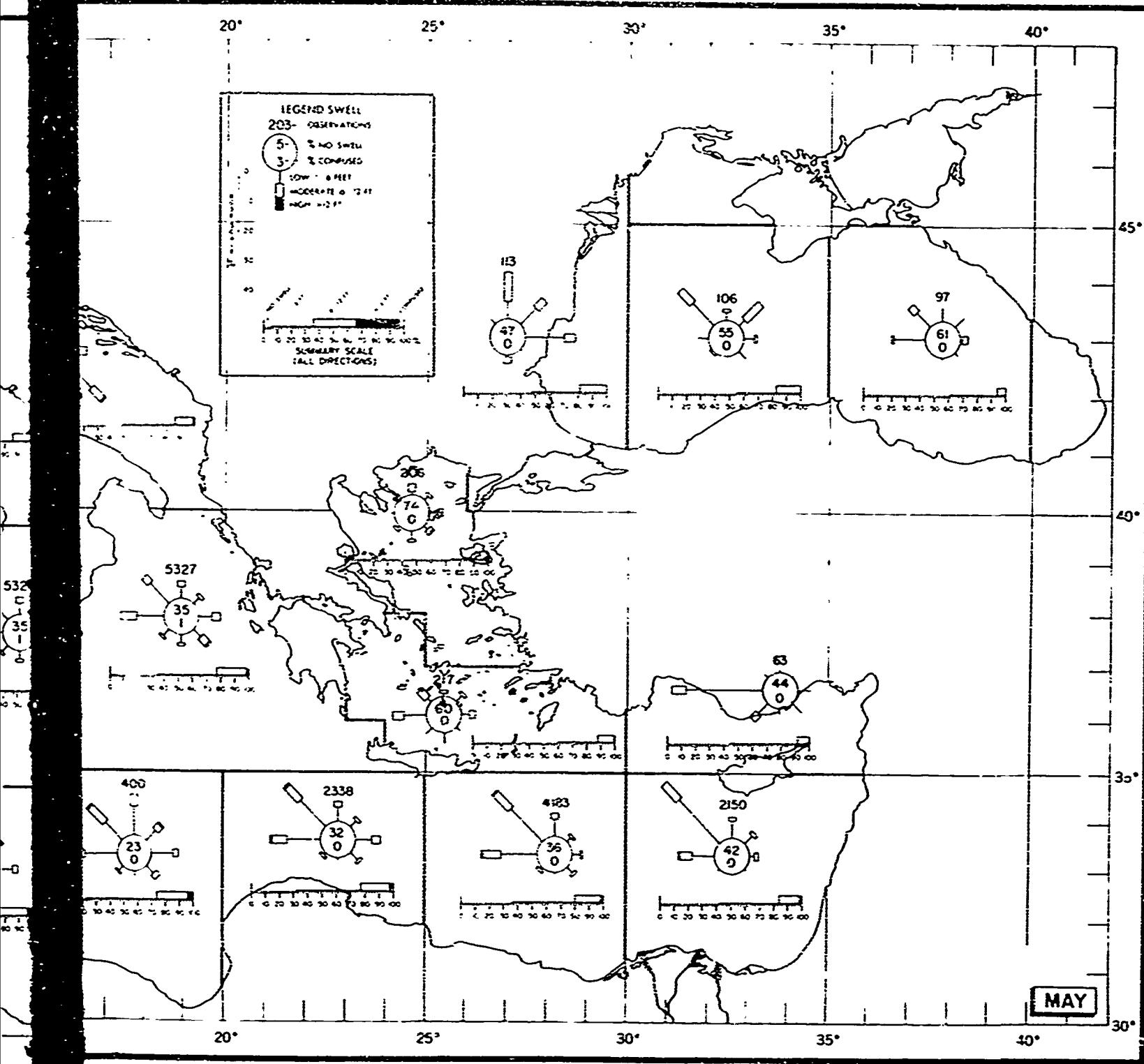


FIGURE 18. SWELL IN THE MEDITERRANEAN



IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, MAY

FIGURE 18. SWELL, MAY

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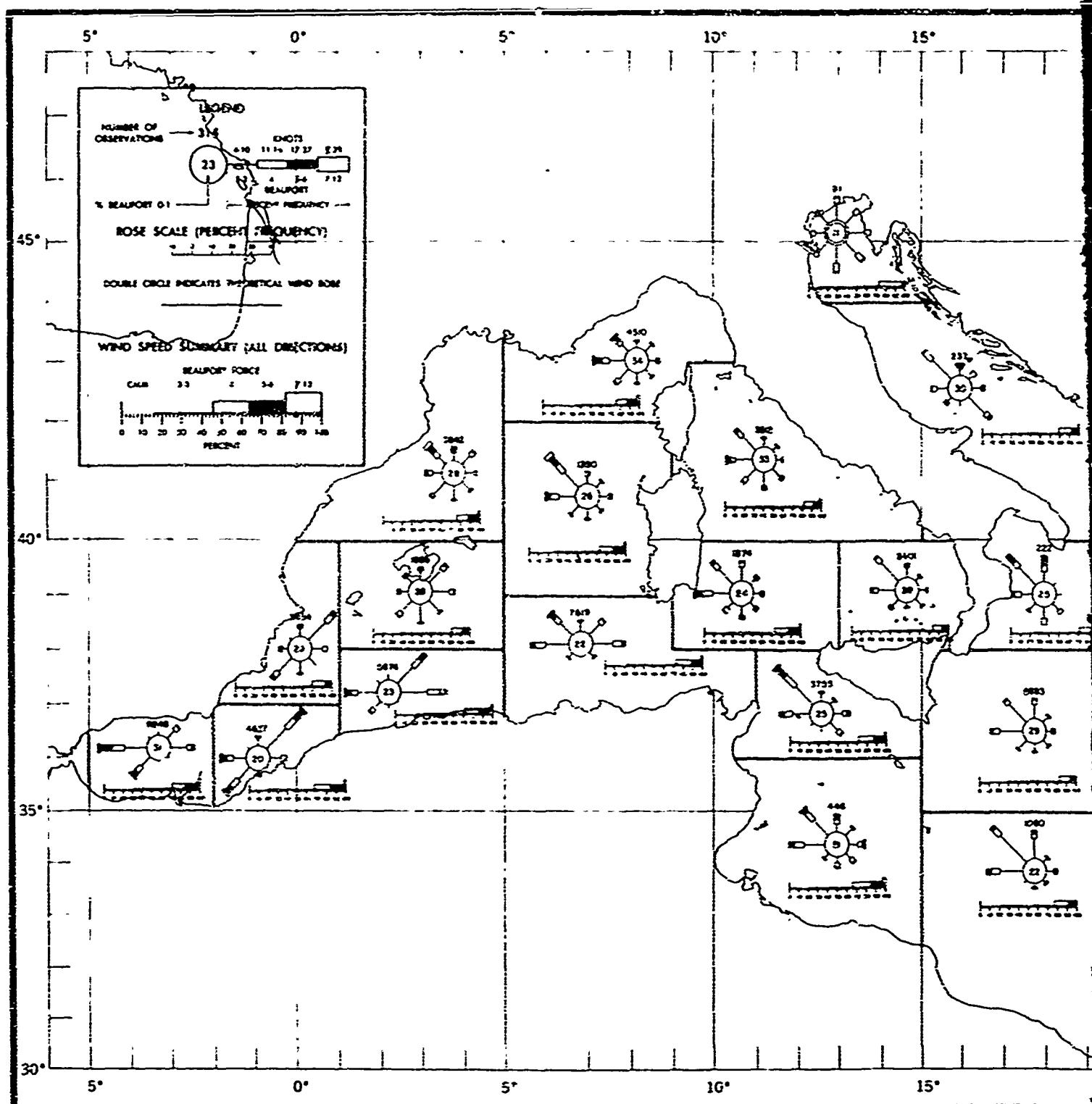


FIGURE 19. SURFACE WIND ROSES, THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA

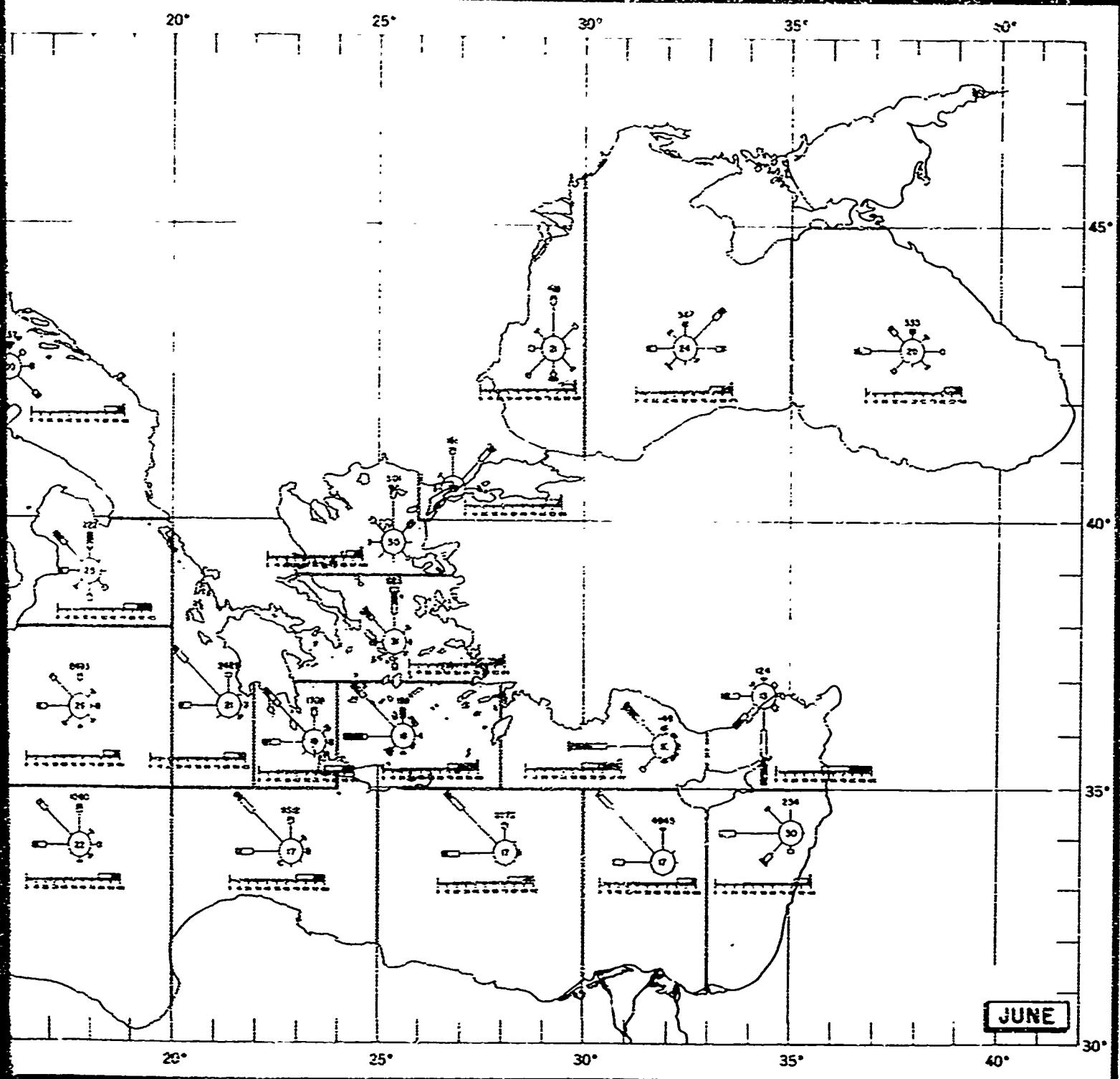


FIGURE 19. SURFACE WINDS, JUNE  
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FIGURE 19. SURFACE WINDS, JUNE

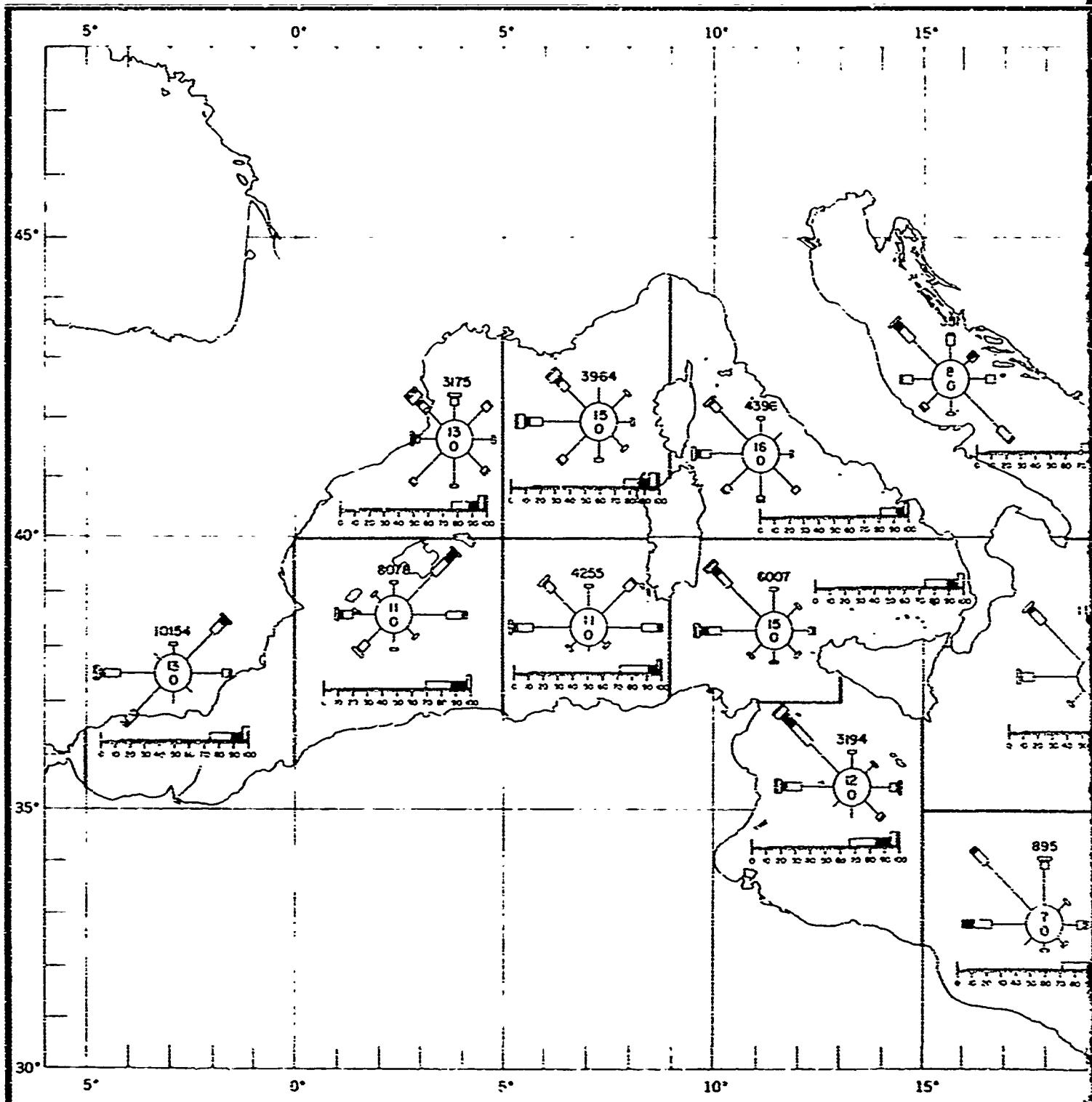
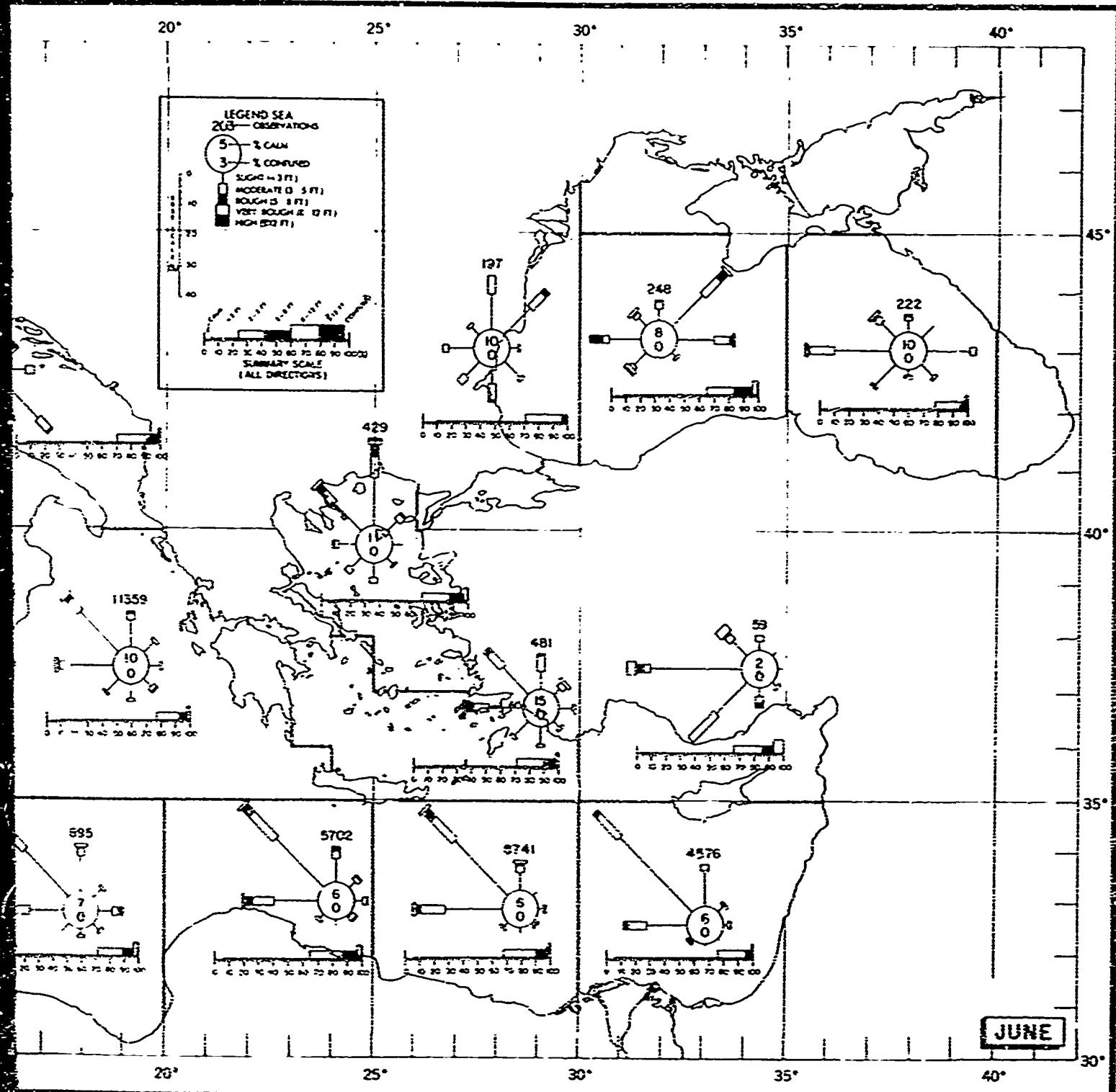


FIGURE 20. STATE OF SEA IN THE M



SEA IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, JUNE

FIGURE 30. SEA, JUNE

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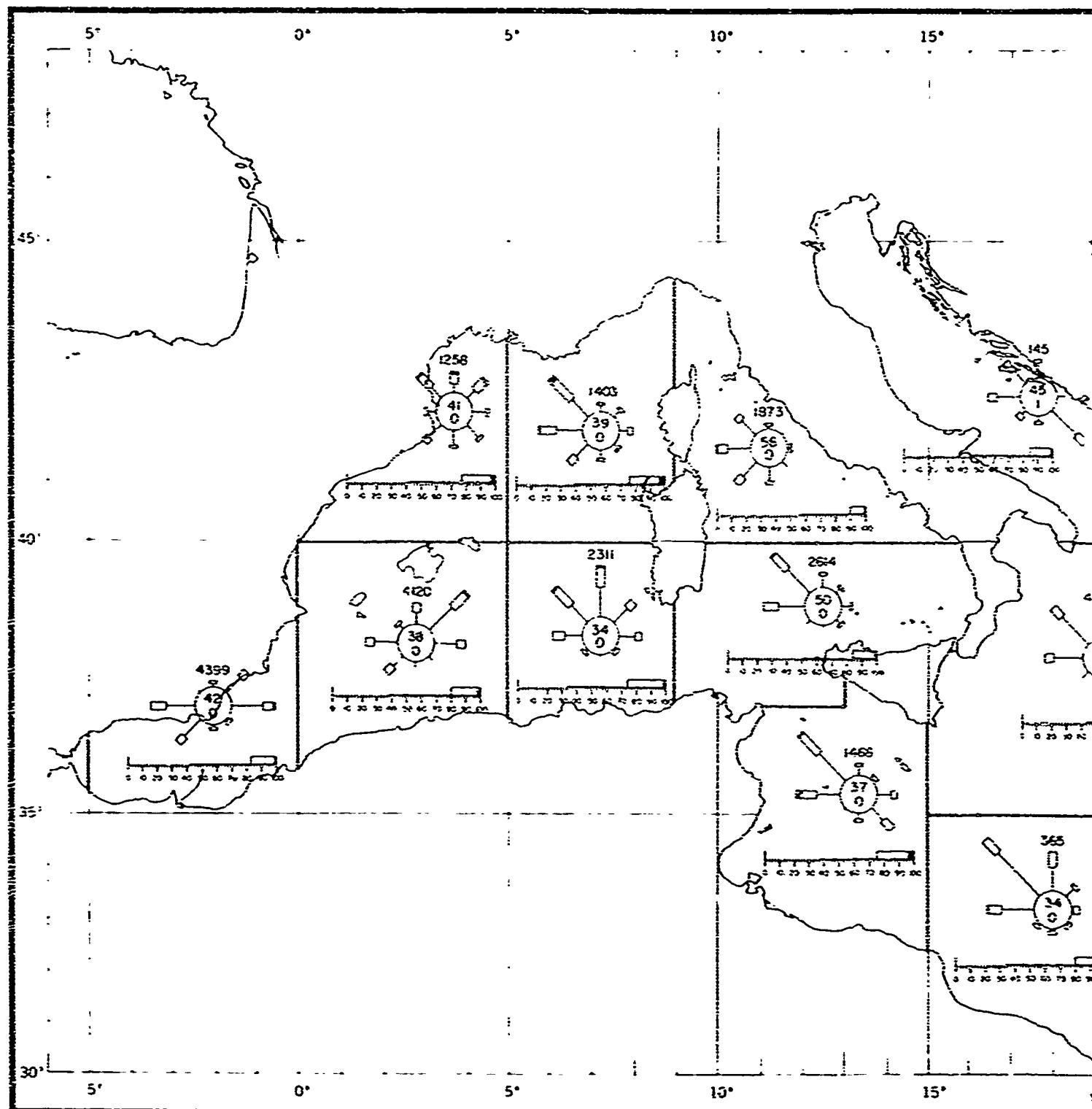
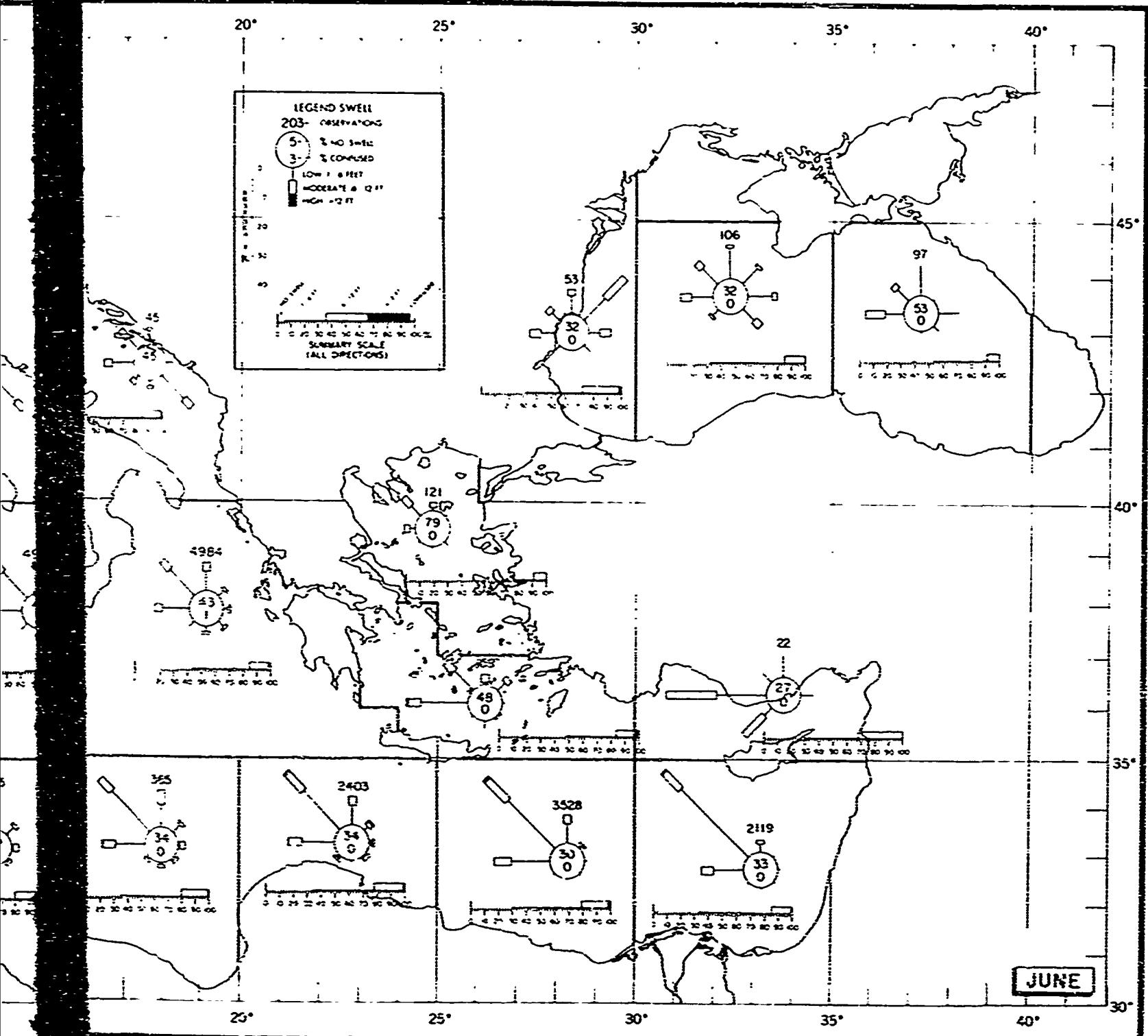


FIGURE 21. SWELL IN THE



IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, JUNE

FIGURE 21. SWELL, JUNE

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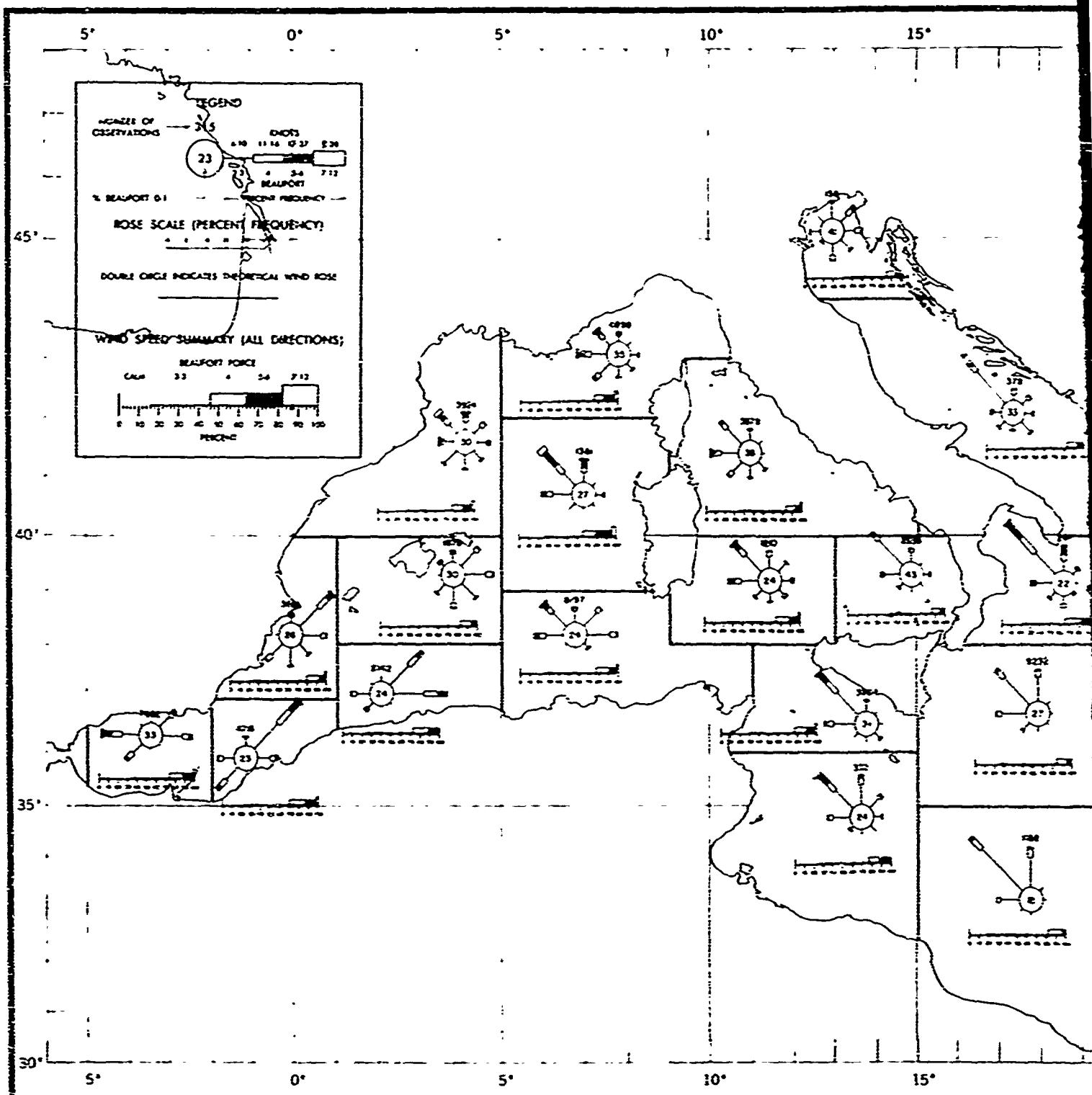


FIGURE 22. SURFACE WIND ROSES.

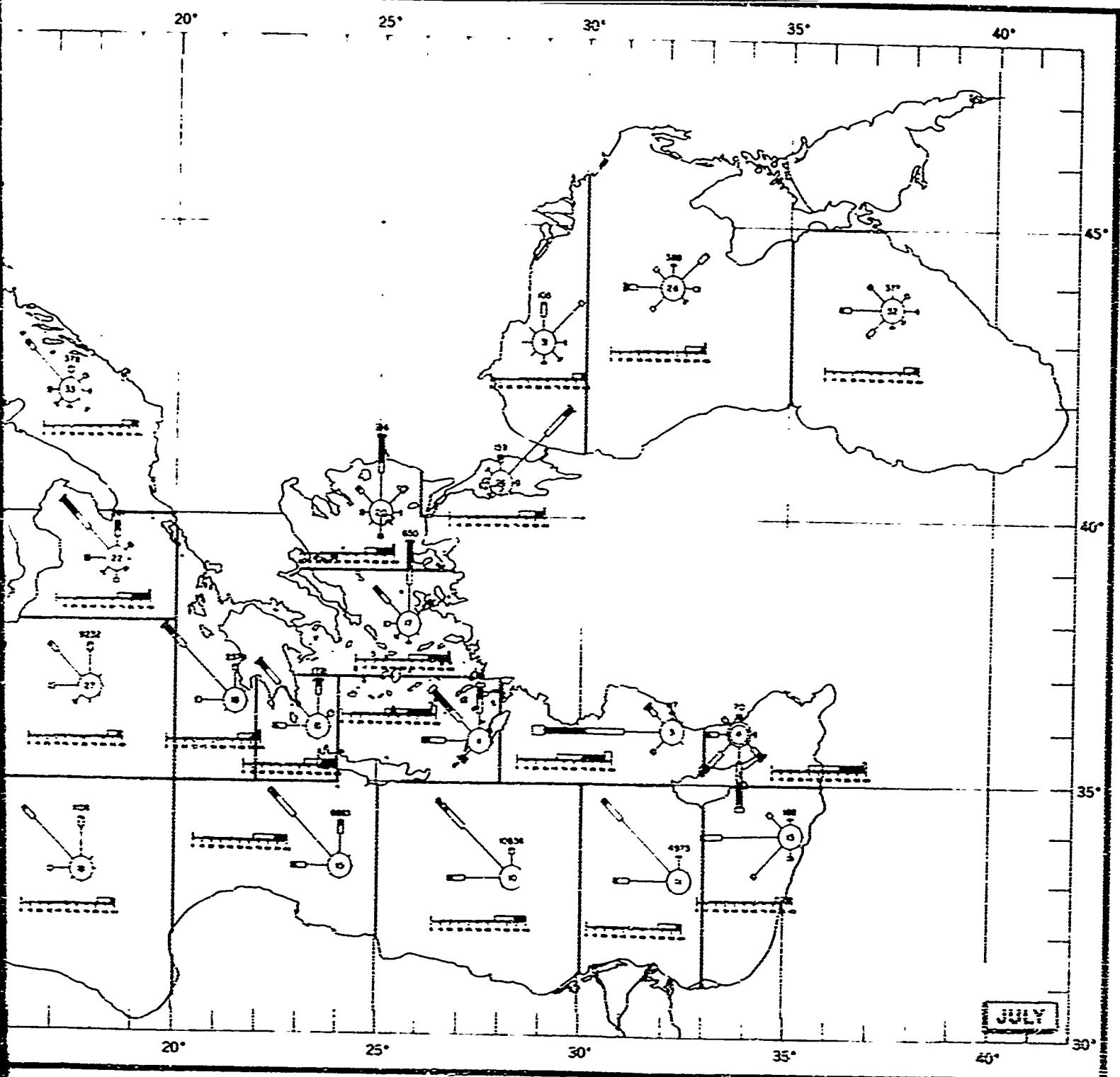


FIGURE 27. SURFACE WINDS, JULY

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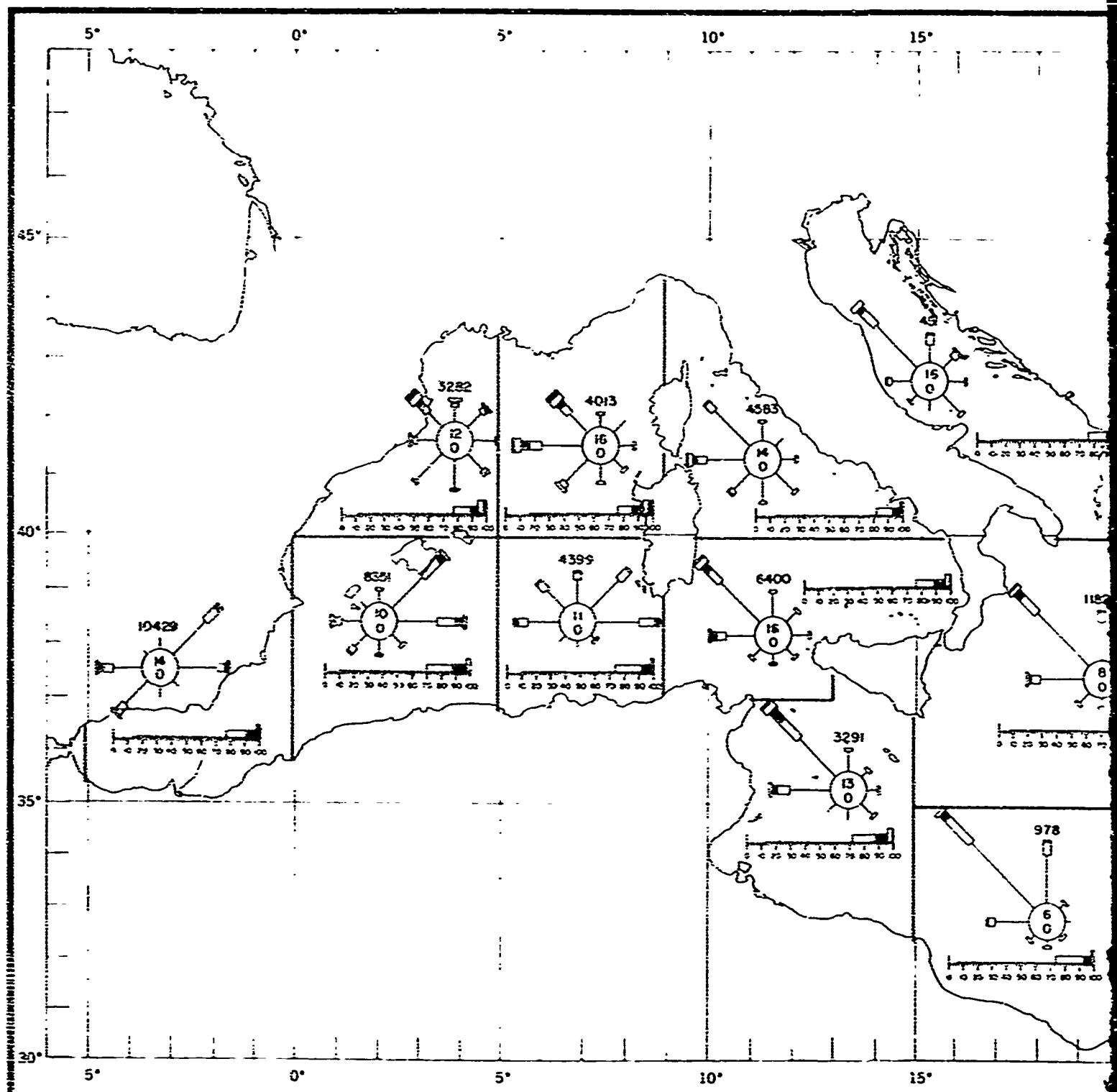
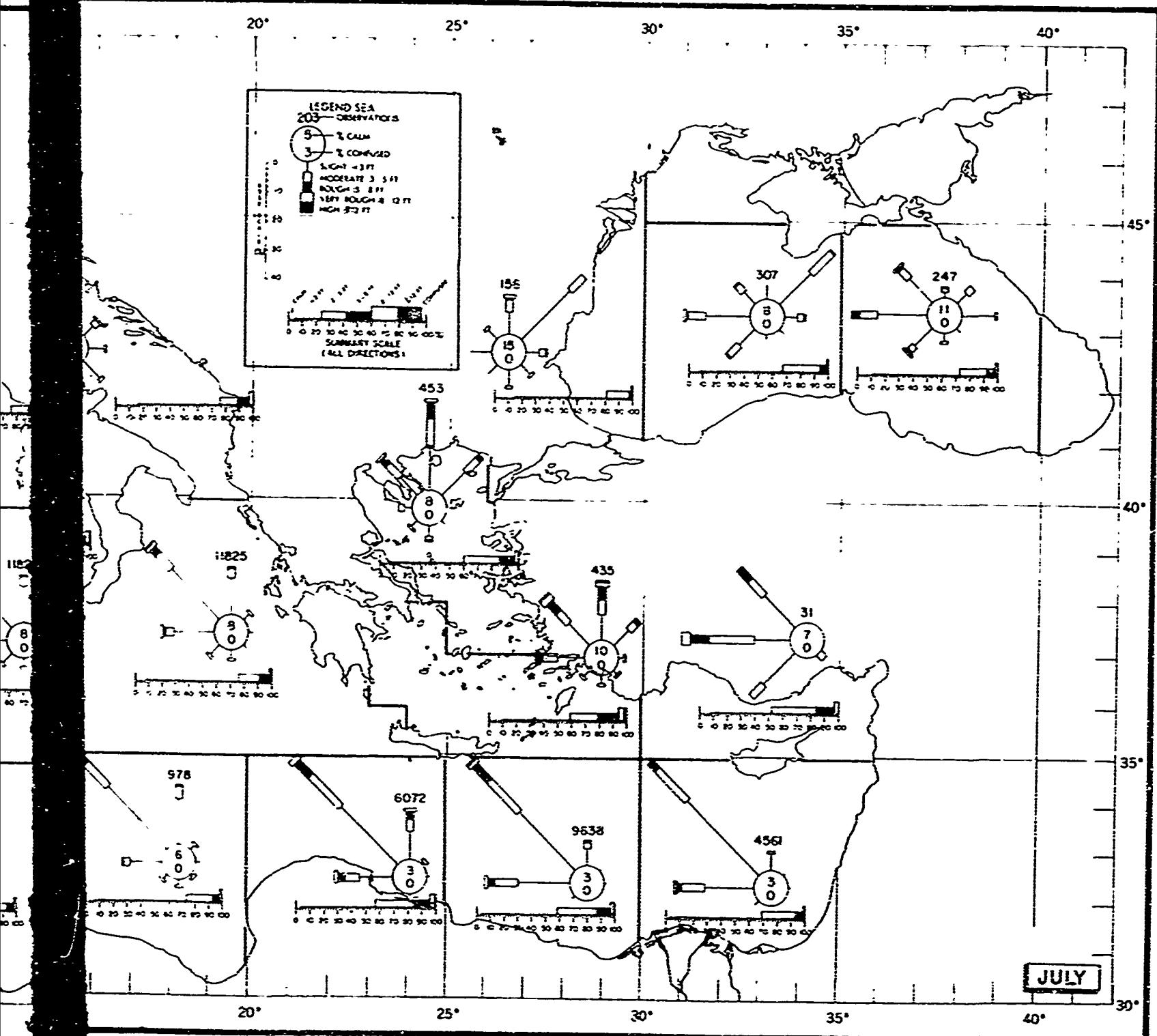


FIGURE 23. STATE OF SEA IN THE MEDITERRANEAN



THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, JULY

FIGURE 23. SEA, JULY

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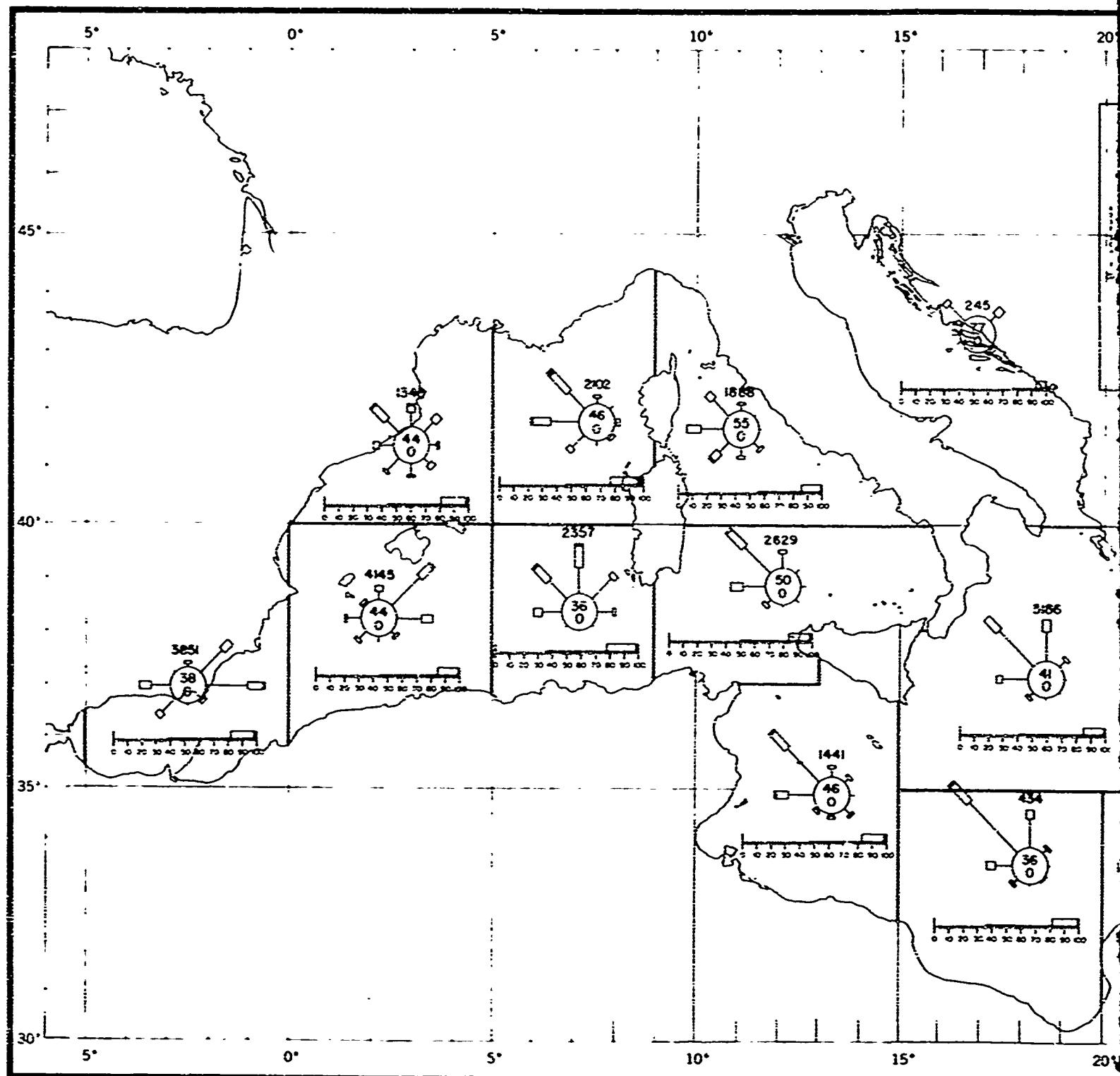
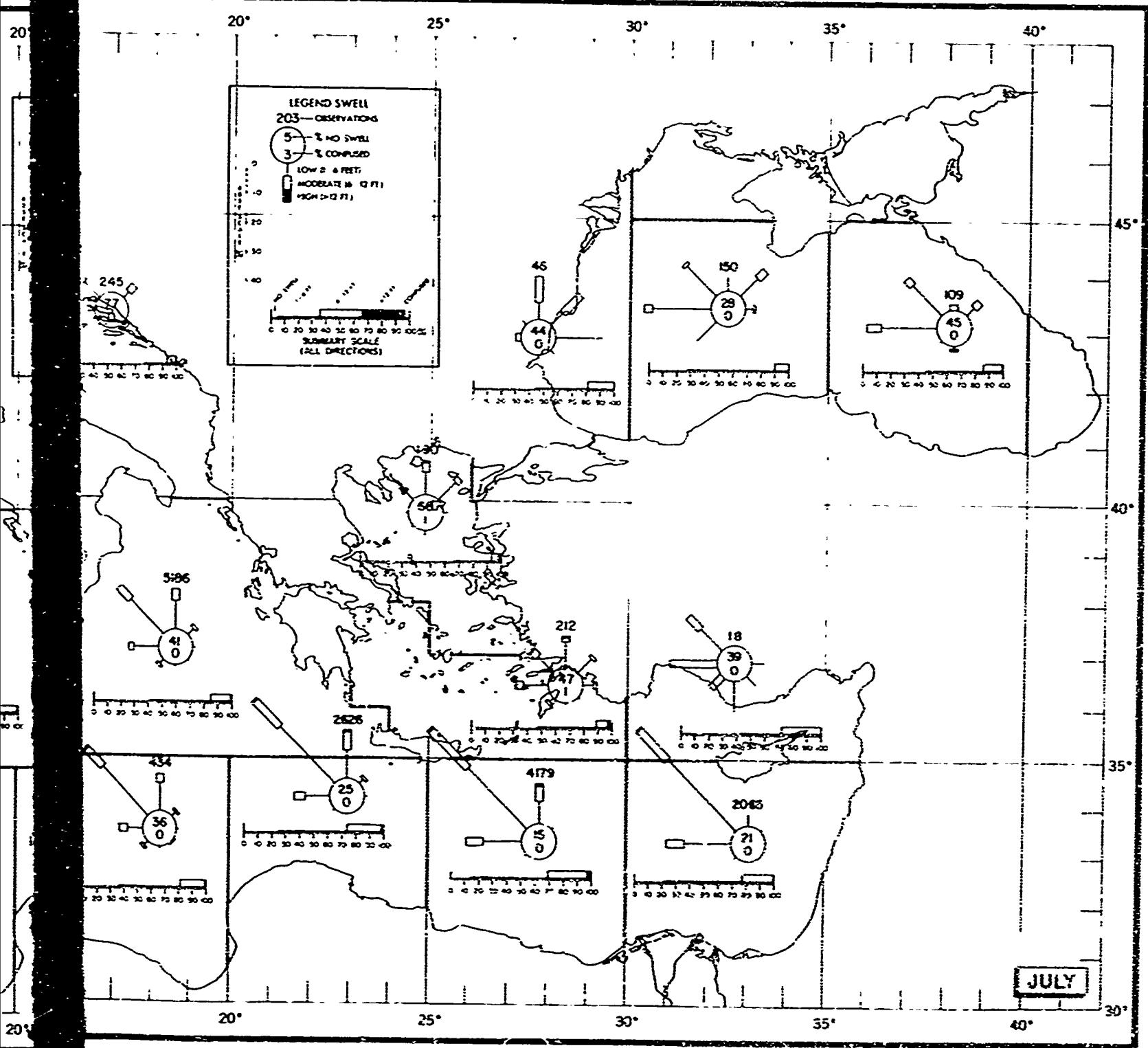


FIGURE 24. SWELL IN THE MEDITERRANEAN



NEAR-SURFACE SWELL IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, JULY

FIGURE 24. SWELL, JULY

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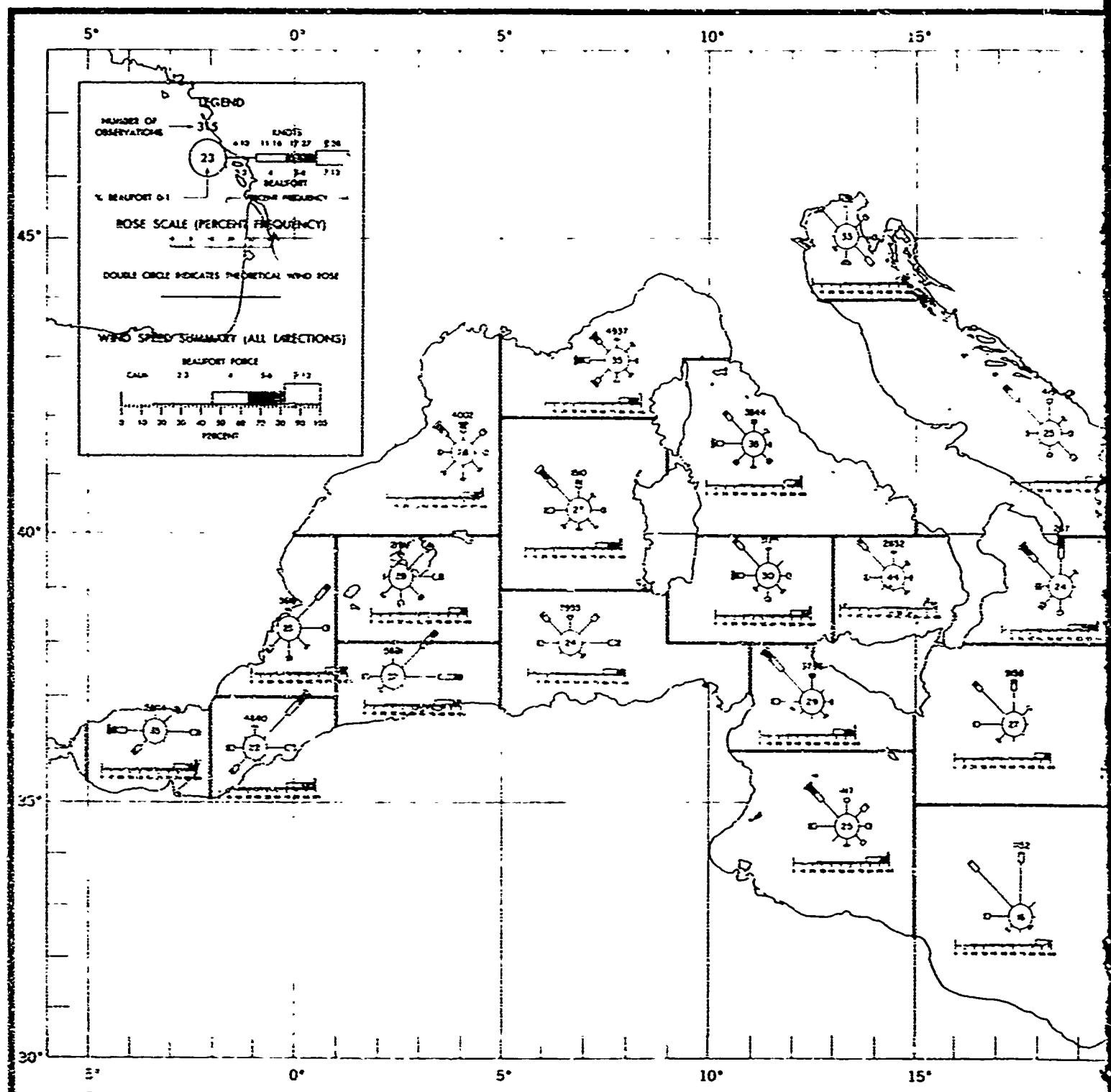
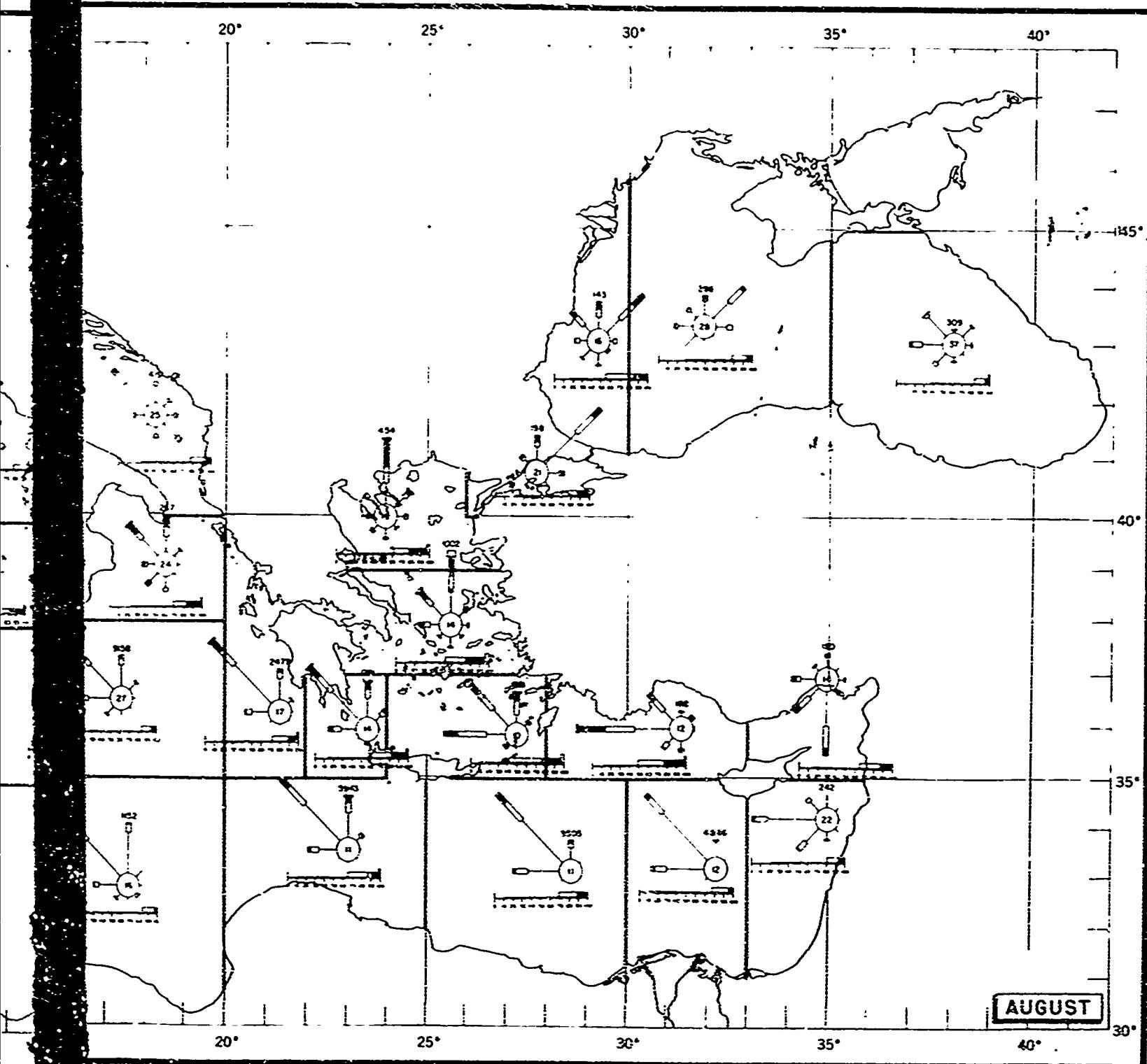


FIGURE 25. SURFACE WIND ROSES, THE MEDITERRANEAN



ED... COSES, THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, AUGUST

FIGURE 25. SURFACE WINDS, AUGUST

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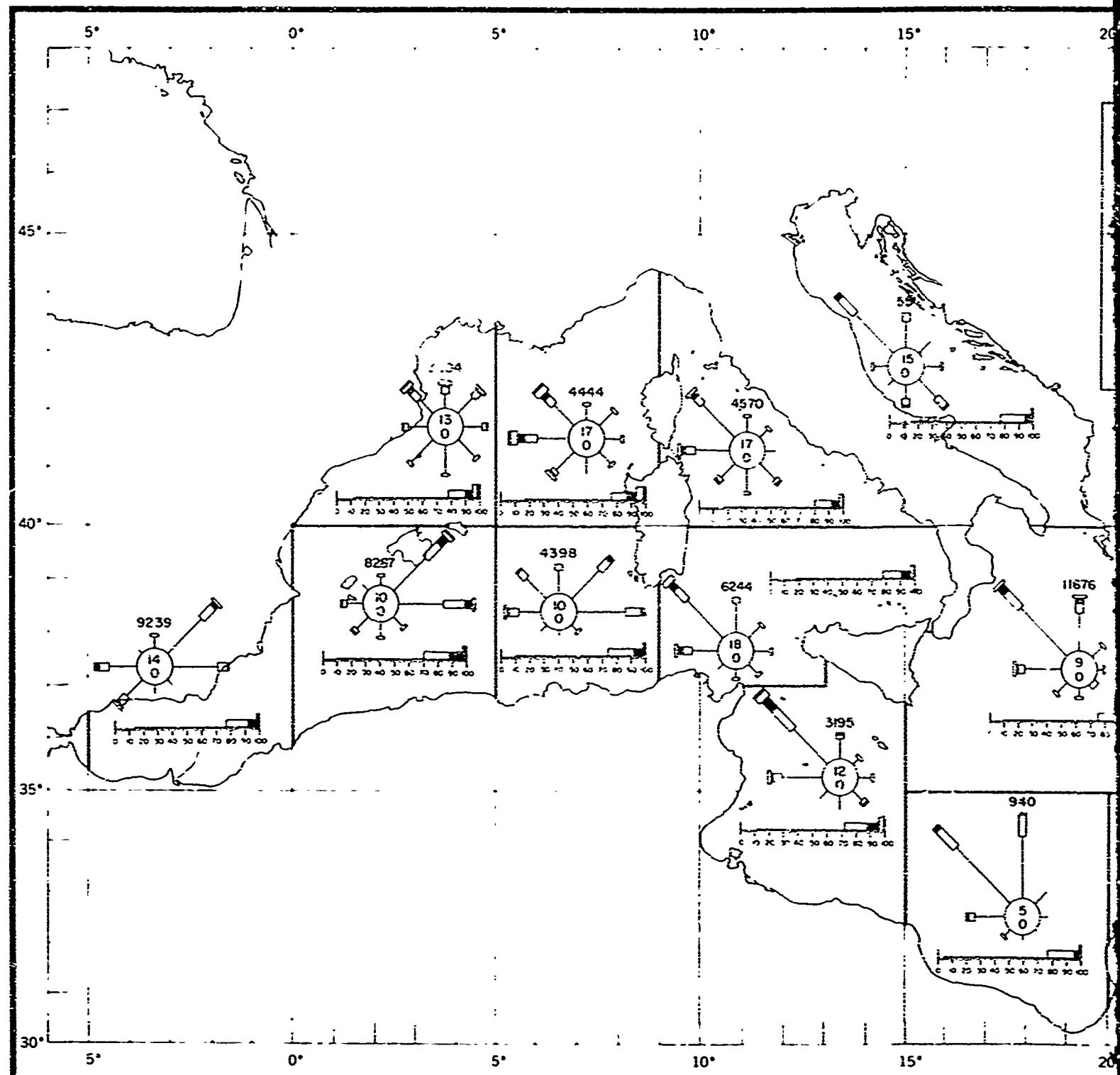
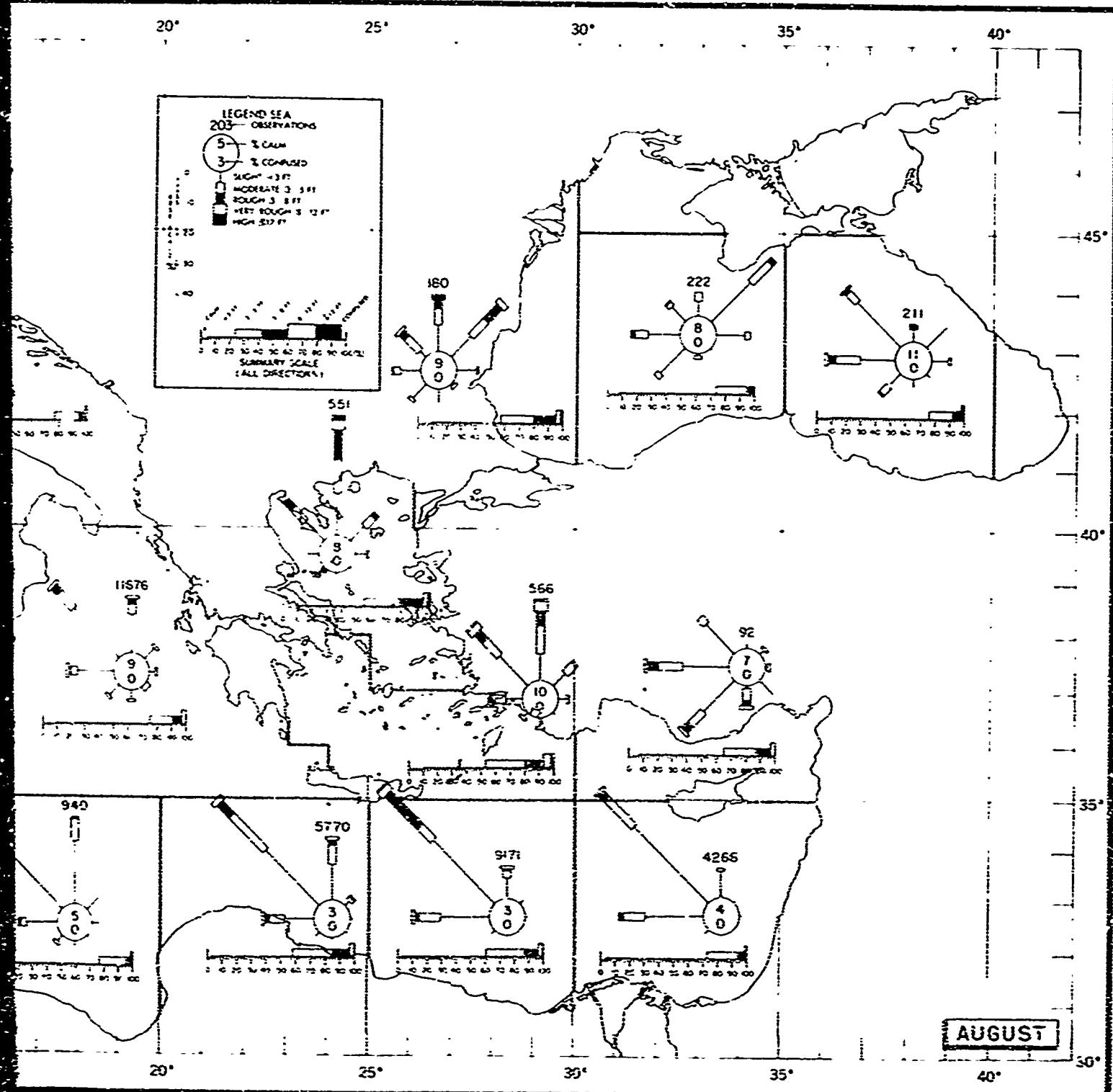


FIGURE 26. STATE OF SEA IN THE MEDITERRANEAN



SEA STATE IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, AUGUST

FIGURE 26. SEA, AUGUST

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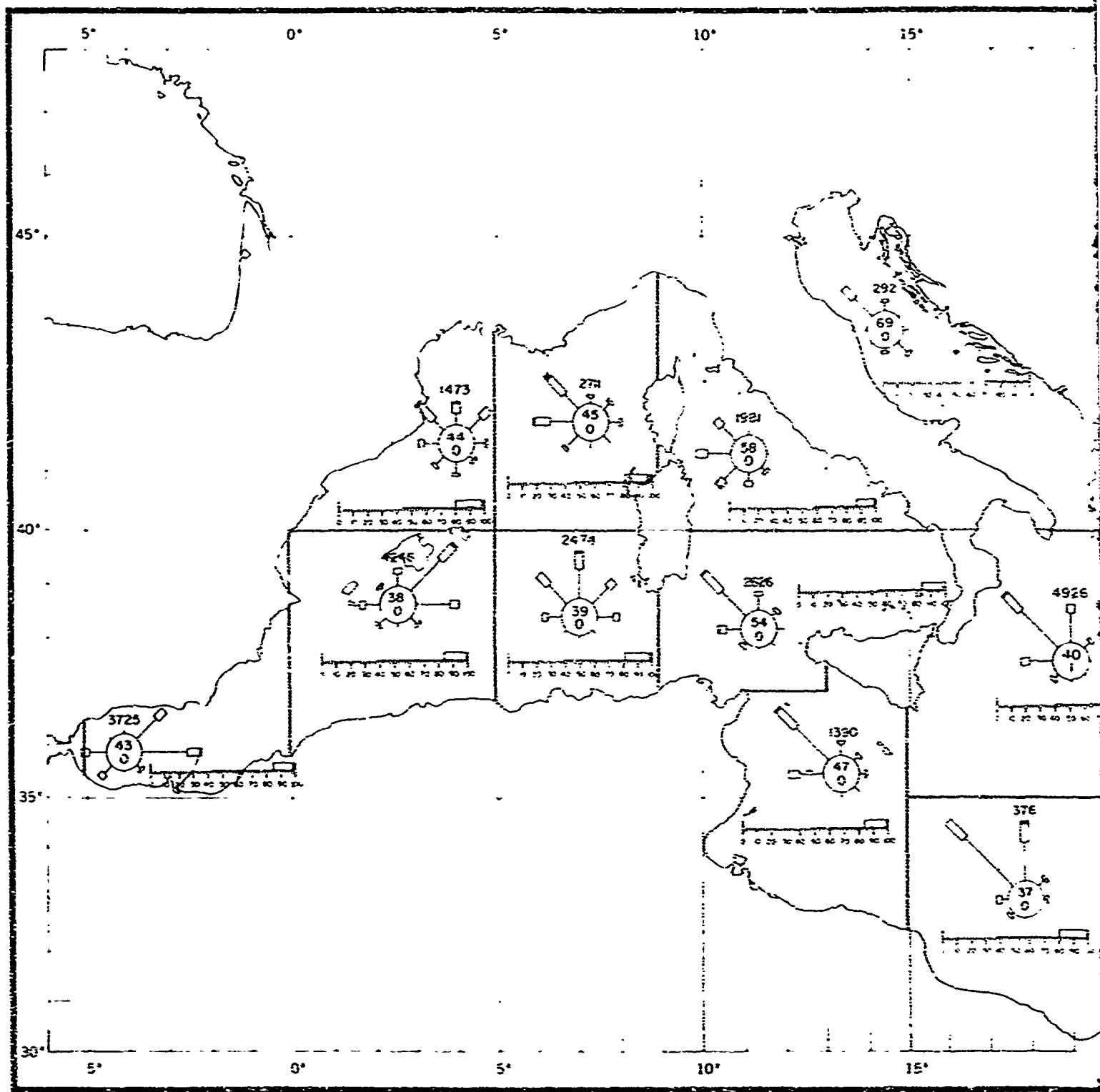


FIGURE 27. SWELL IN THE MEDITERRANEAN

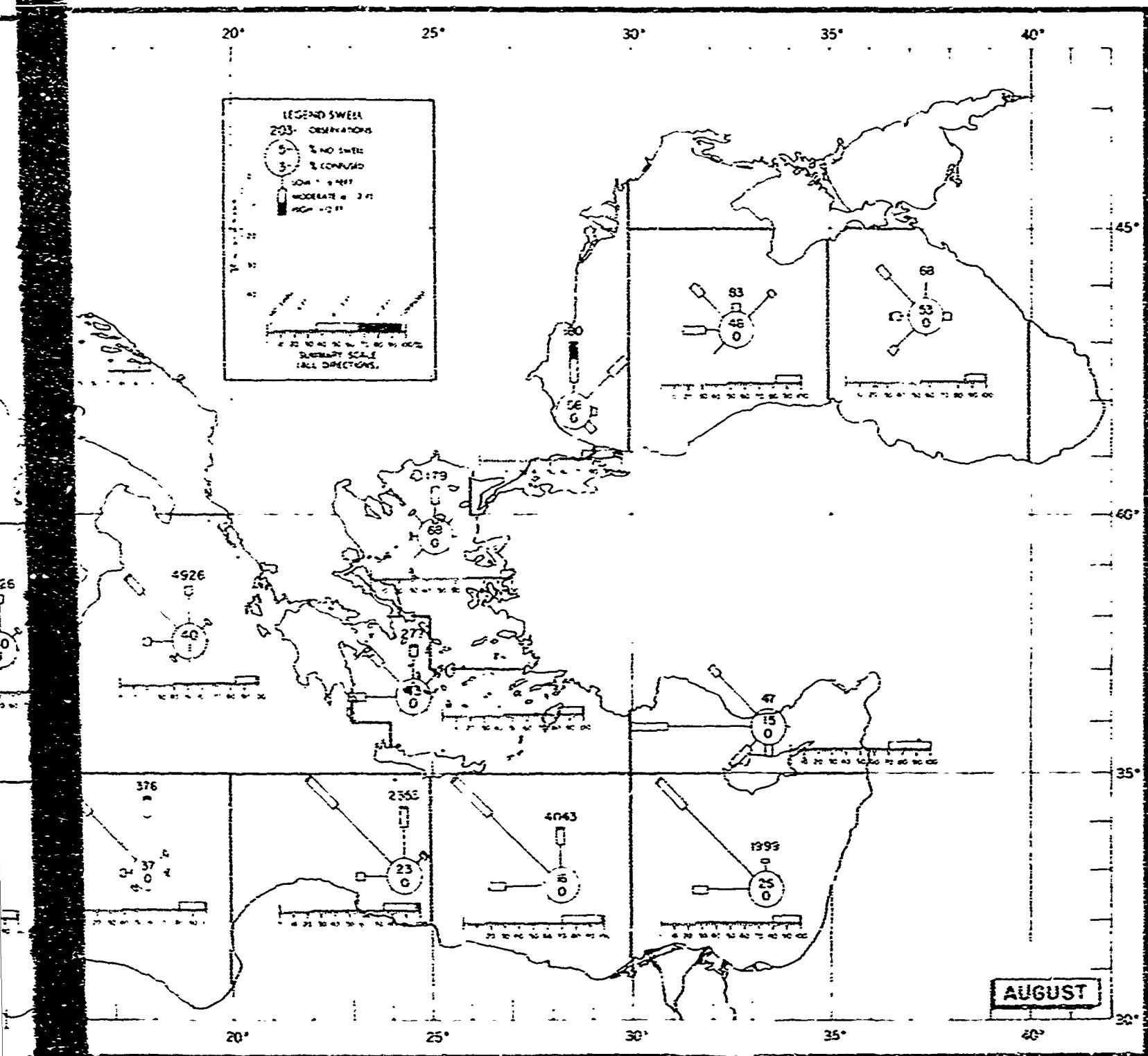


FIGURE 27. SWELL IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, AUGUST

FIGURE 27. SWELL, AUGUST

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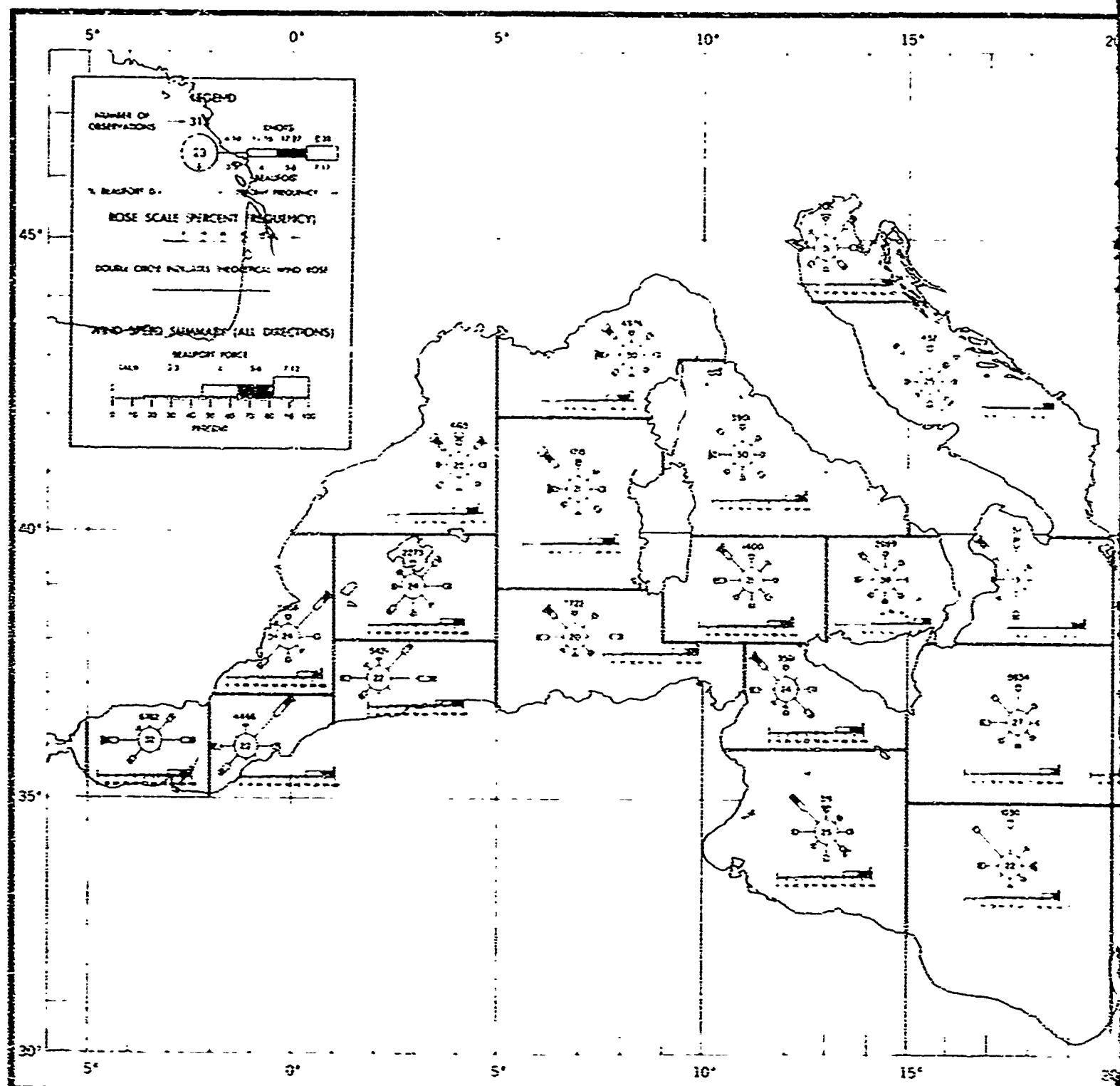
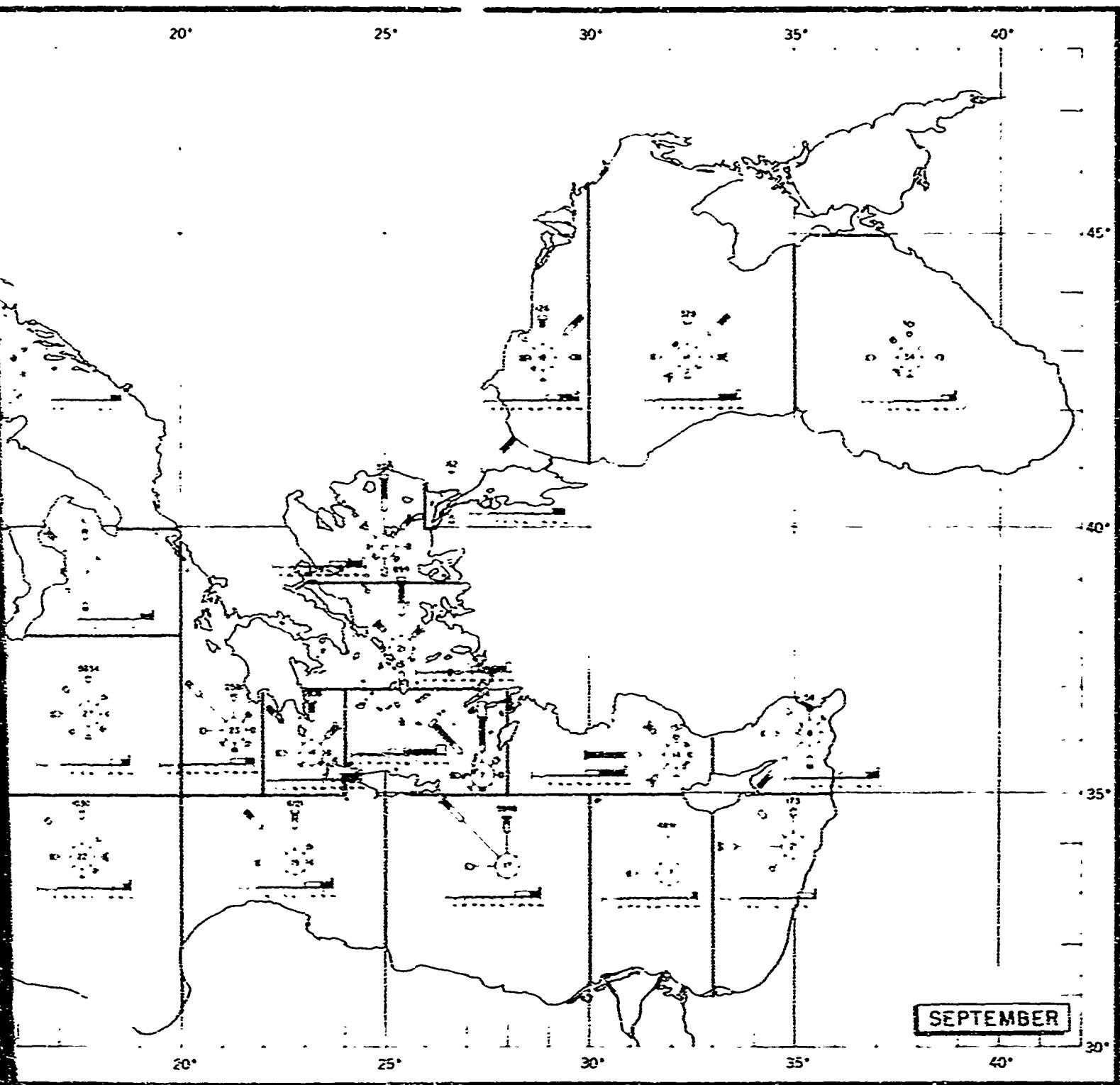


FIGURE 28. SURFACE WIND ROSES, THE MEDITERRANEAN



CHIEF WIND ROSES, THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, SEPTEMBER

FIGURE 28. SURFACE WINDS, SEPTEMBER

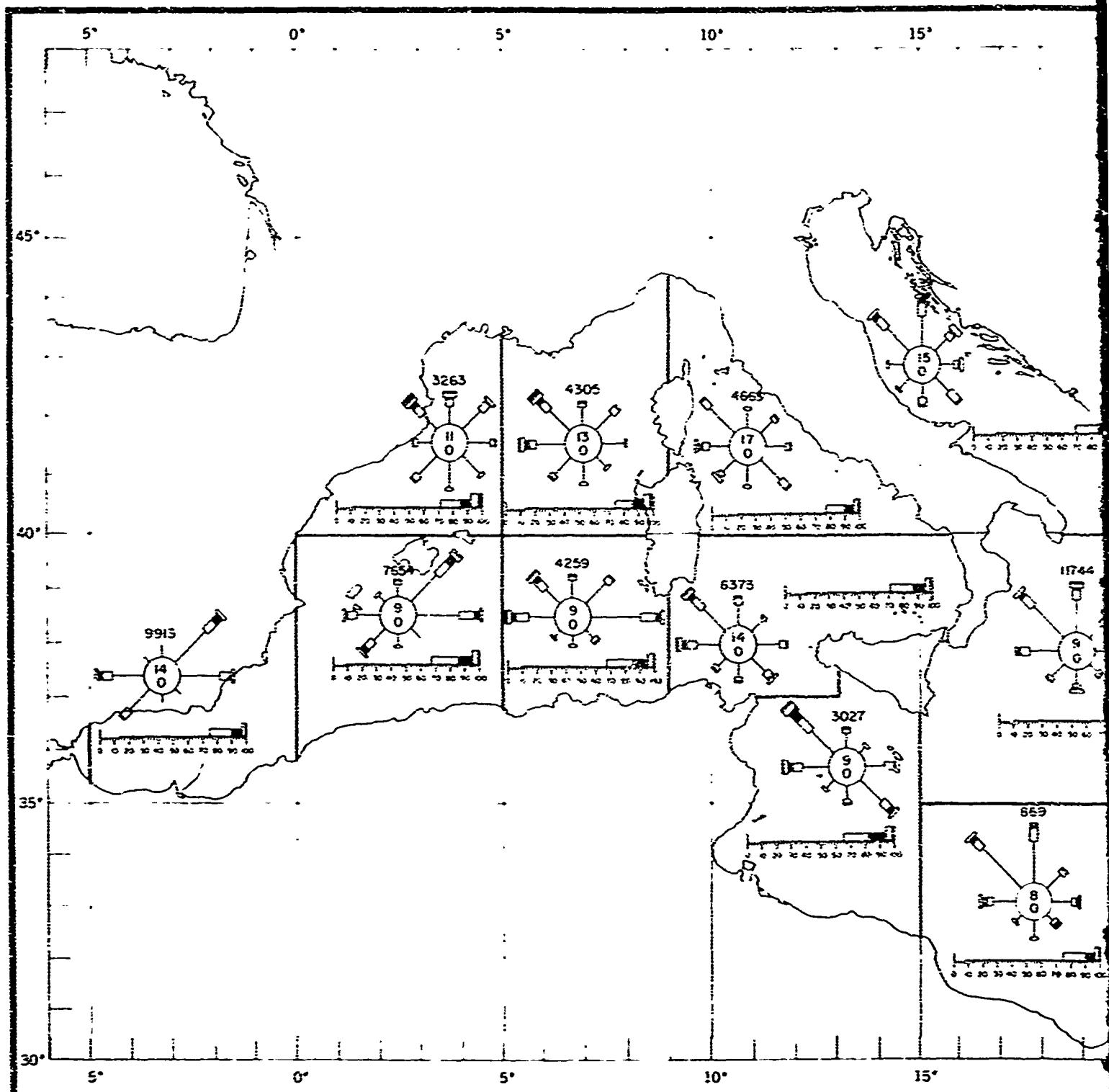


FIGURE 29. STATE OF SEA IN THE MEDITERRANEAN

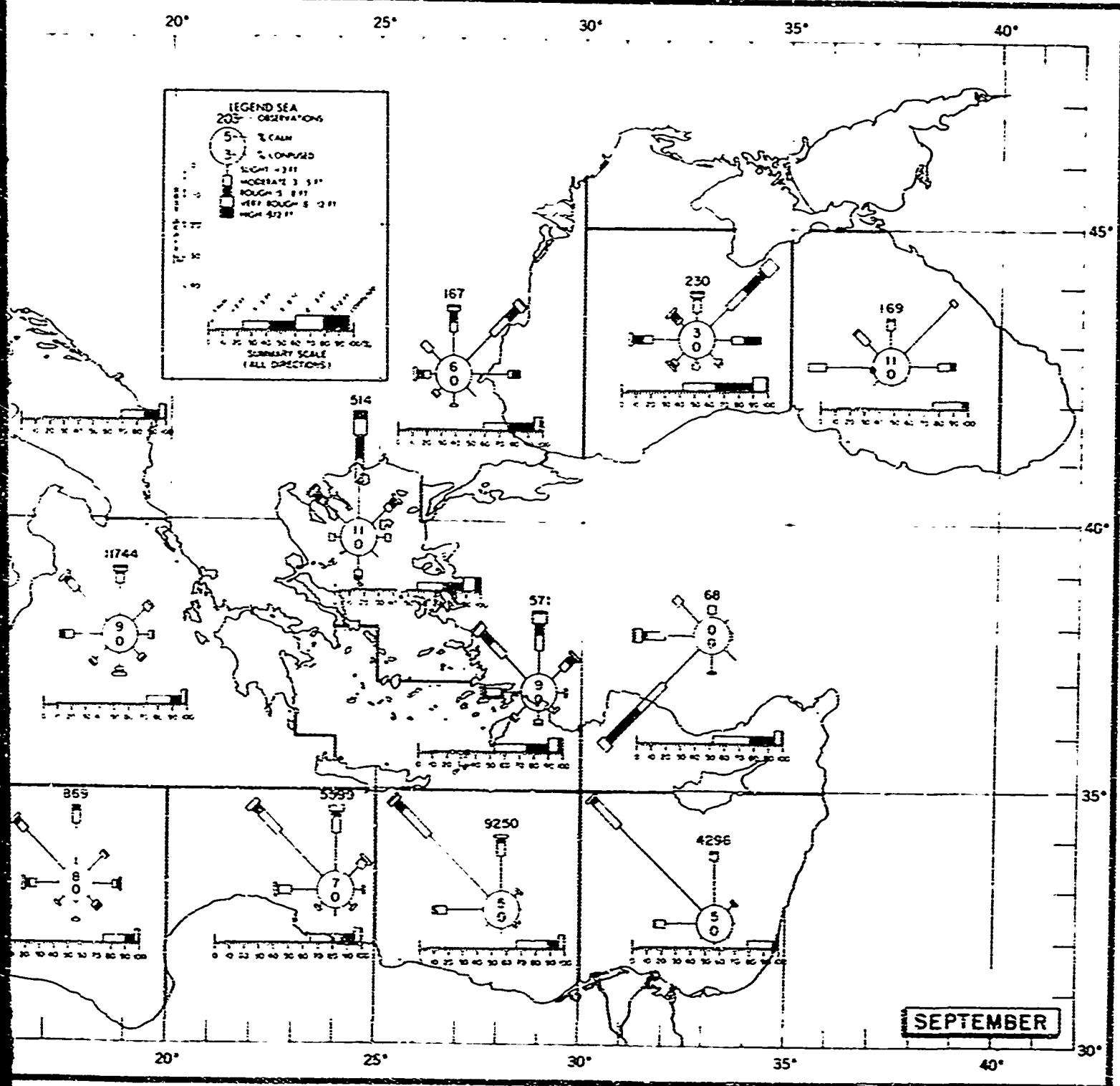


FIGURE 29. SEA, SEPTEMBER

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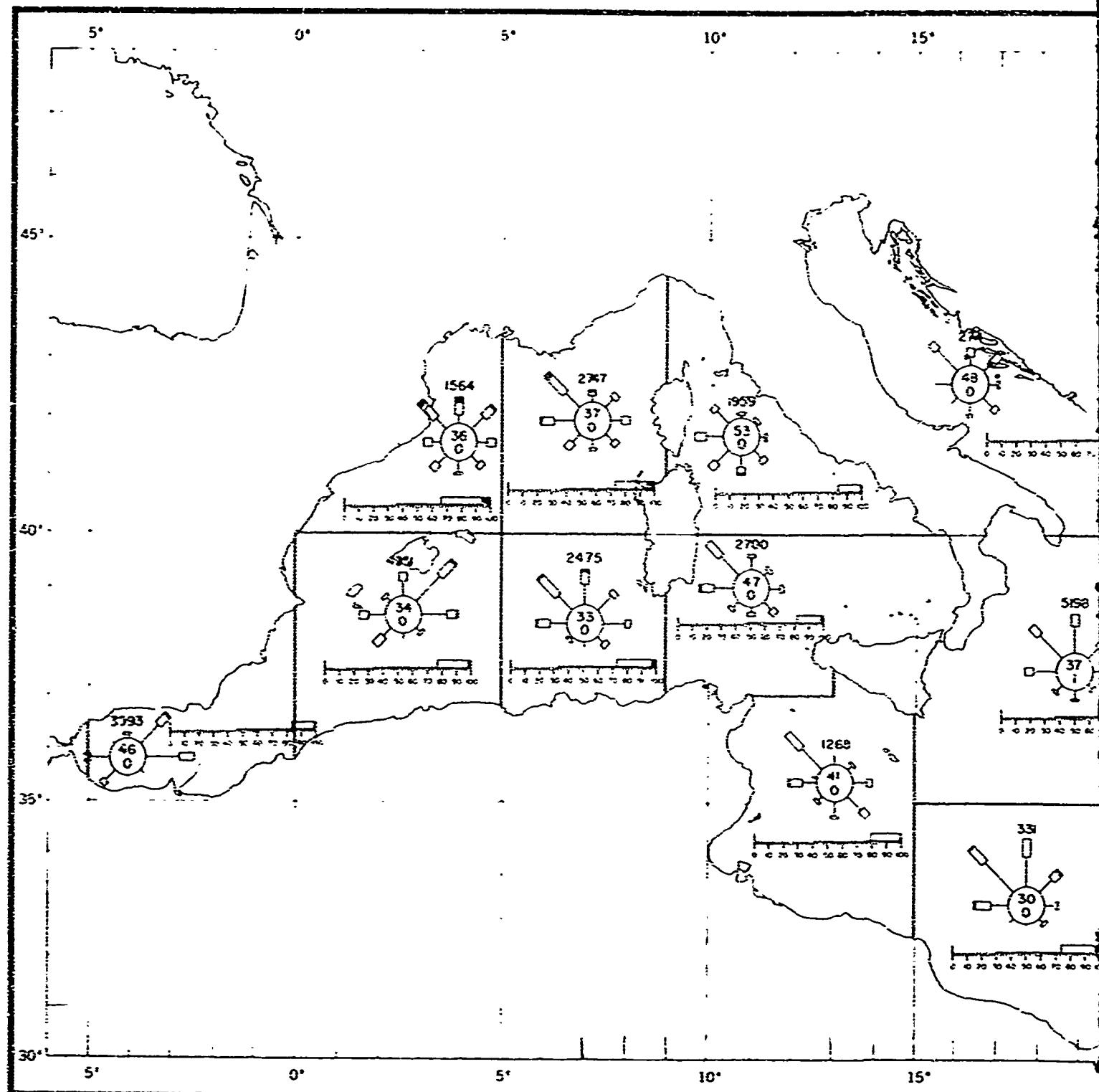
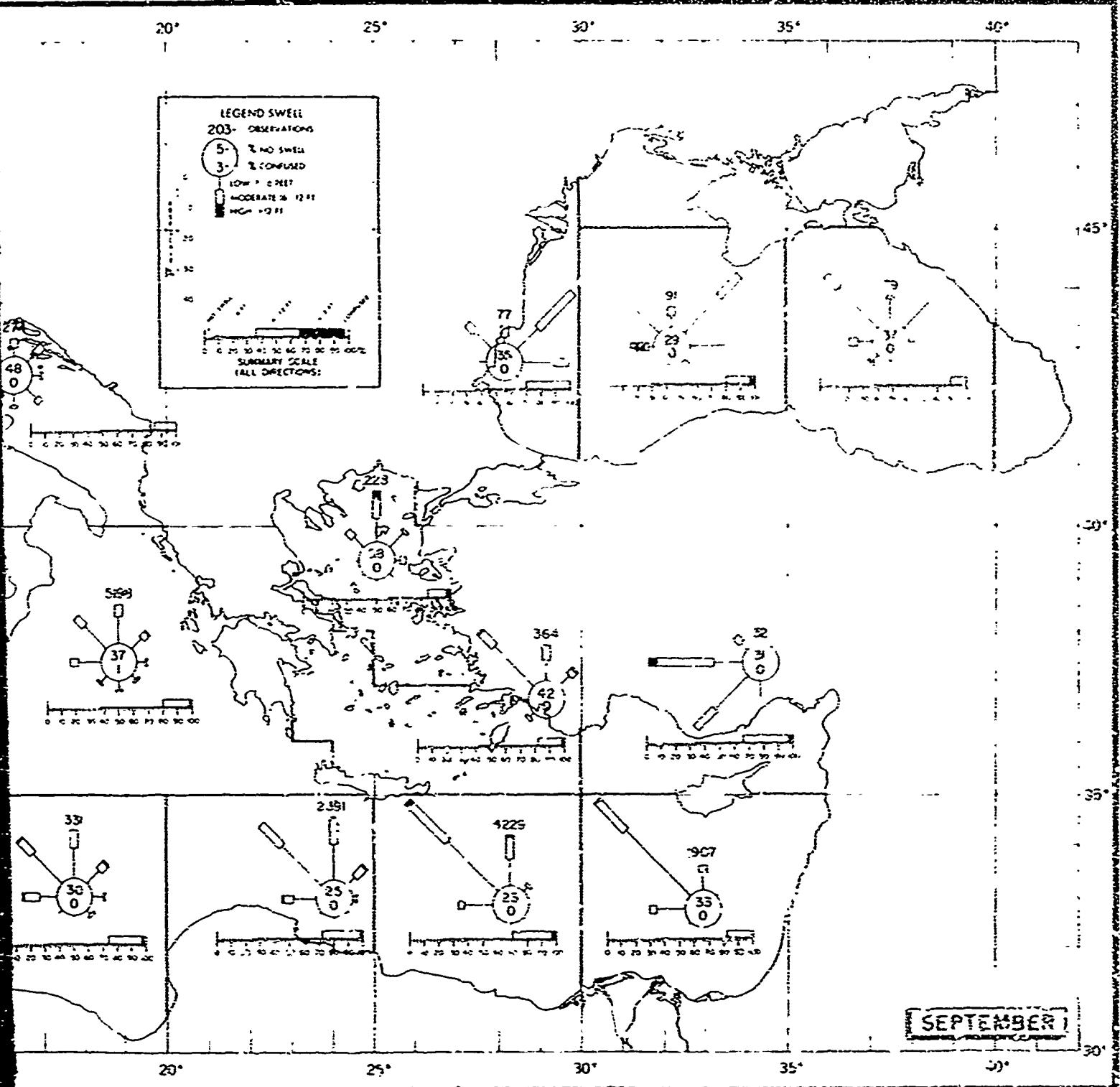


FIGURE 30. SWELL IN THE MEDITERRANEAN



MEDITERRANEAN SEA, SEPTEMBER

FIGURE 30. SKULL, SEPTENAR.

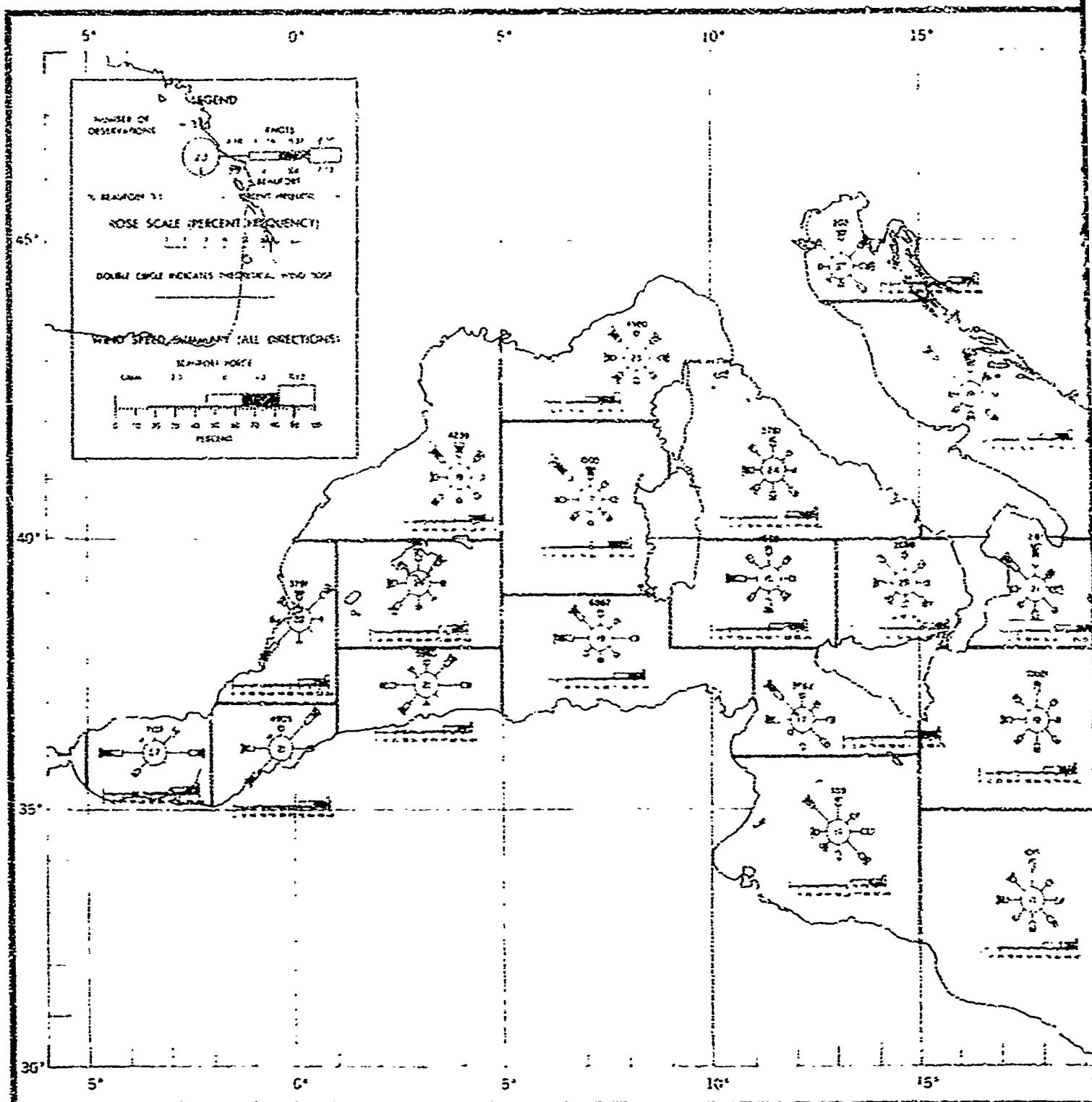


FIGURE 31. SURFACE WIND ROSES THE MEDIEVAL

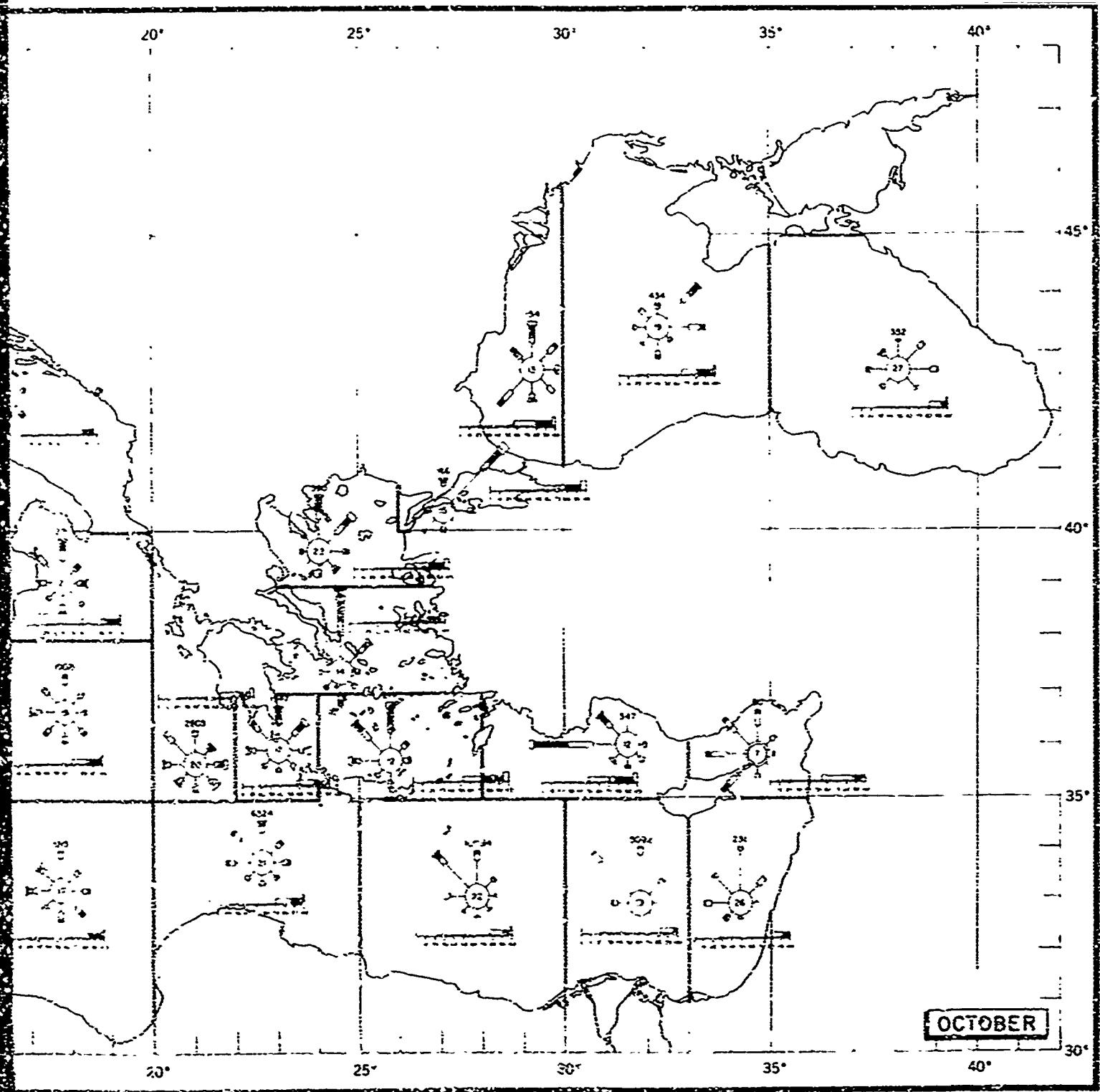
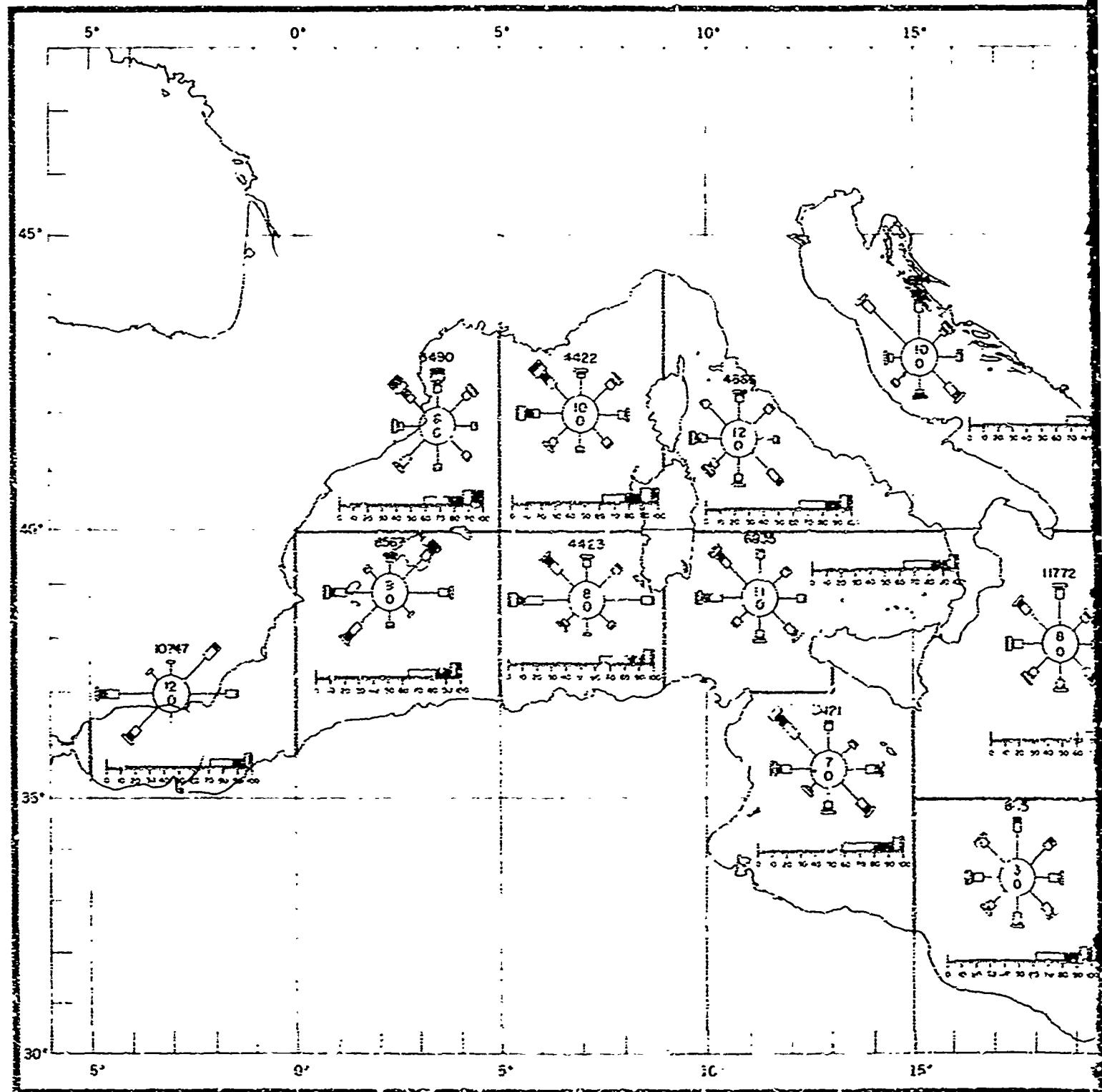
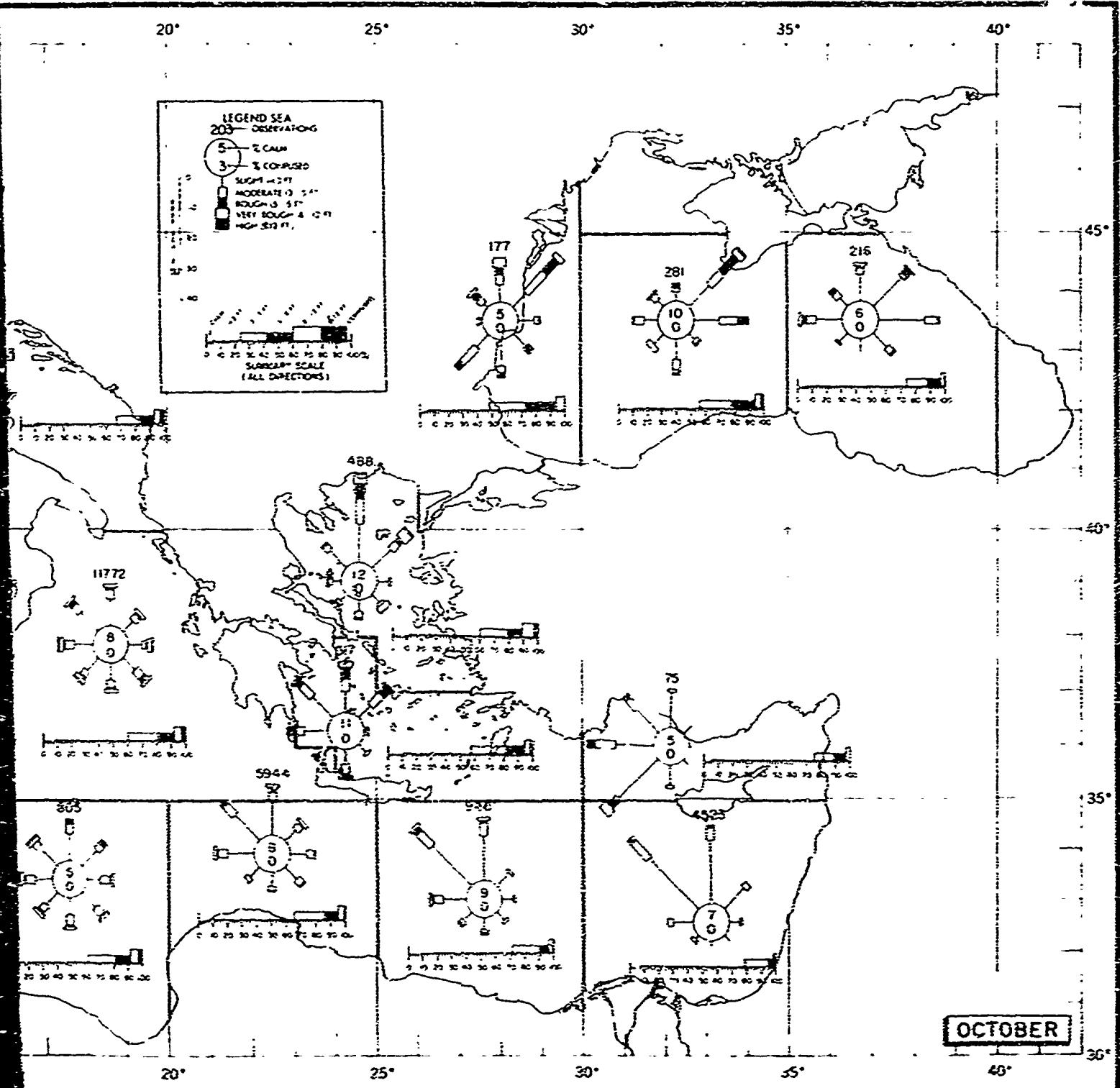


FIGURE 31. SURFACE WINDS, OCTOBER

2



## FIGURE 22. STATE OF SEA IN THE MEDITERRANEAN



## THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, OCTOBER

FIGURE 32. SEA, OCTOBER.

2

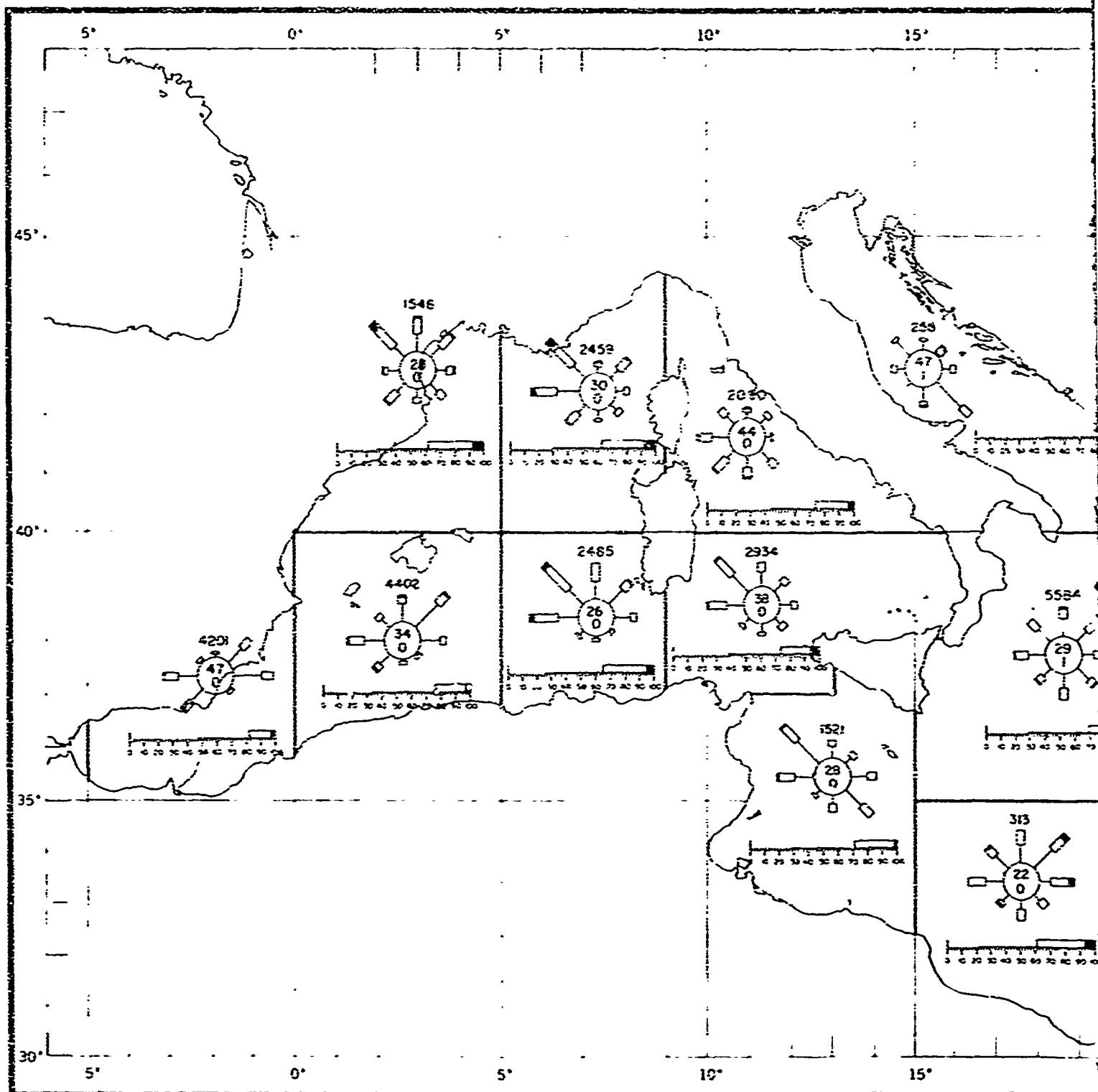
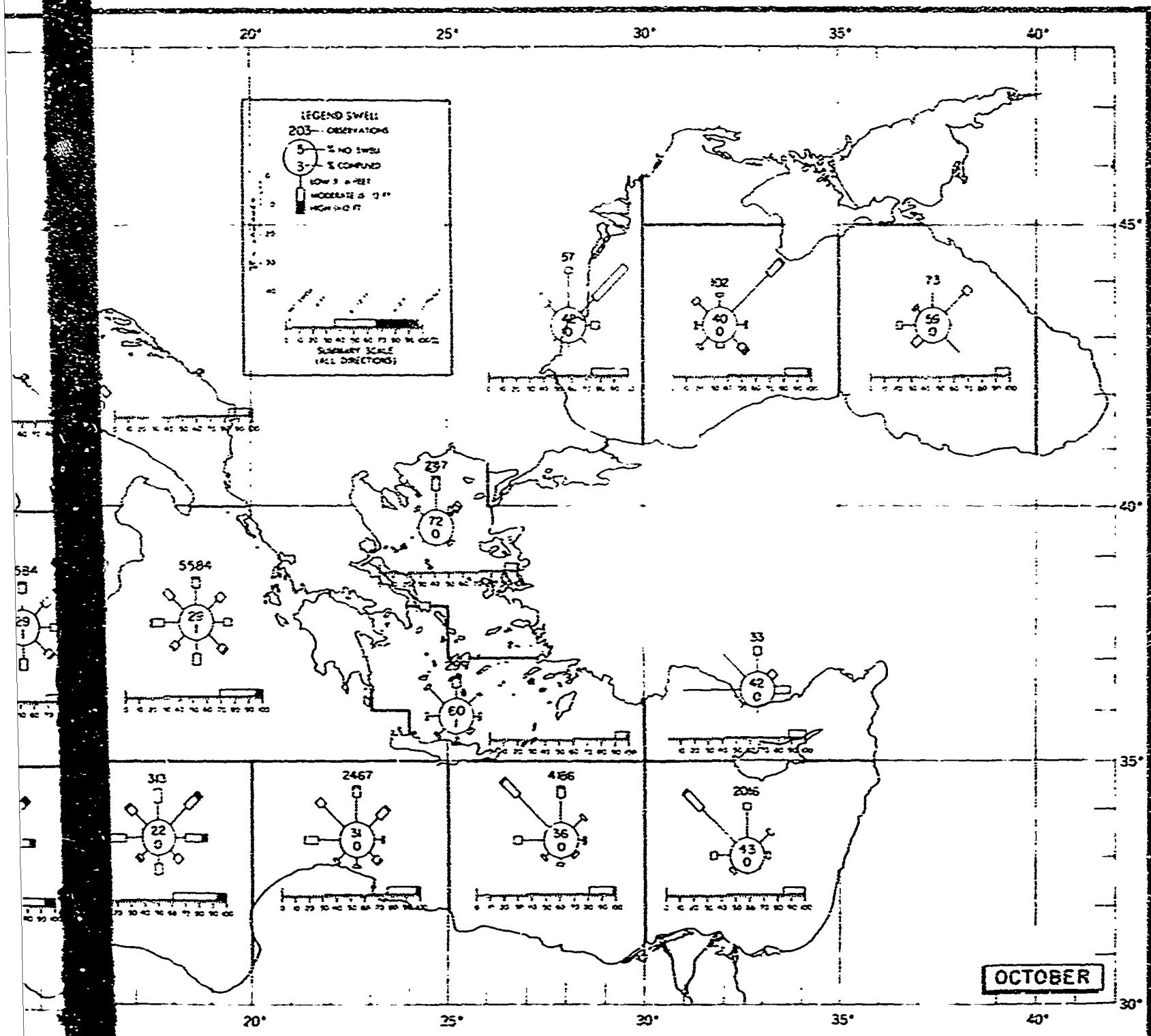


FIGURE 33. SWELL IN THE MEDITERRANEAN



MEAN SWELL MEDITERRANEAN SEA, OCTOBER

FIGURE 33. SWELL, OCTOBER

2

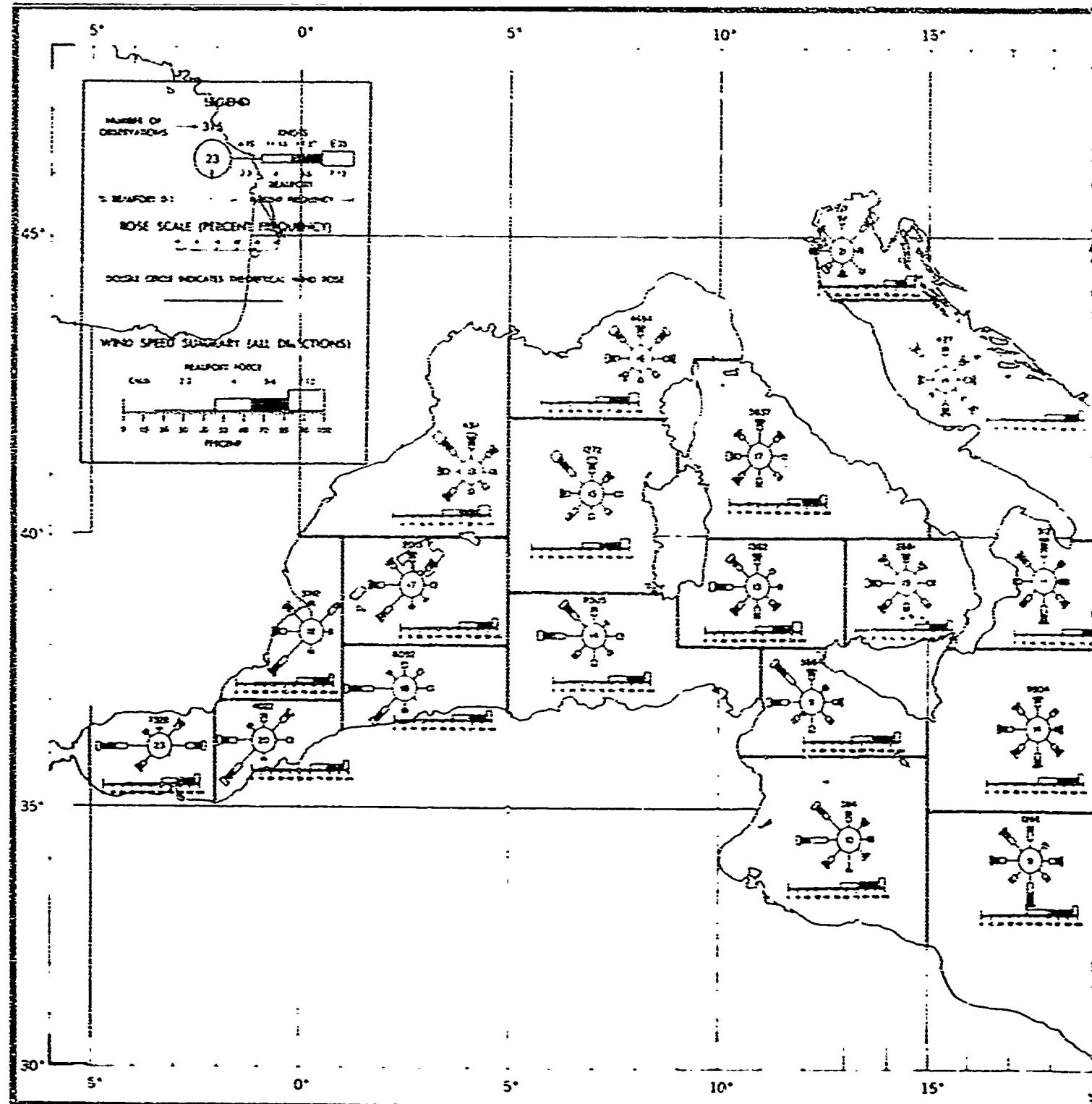


FIGURE 34. SURFACE WIND ROSES, THE N.E.O.

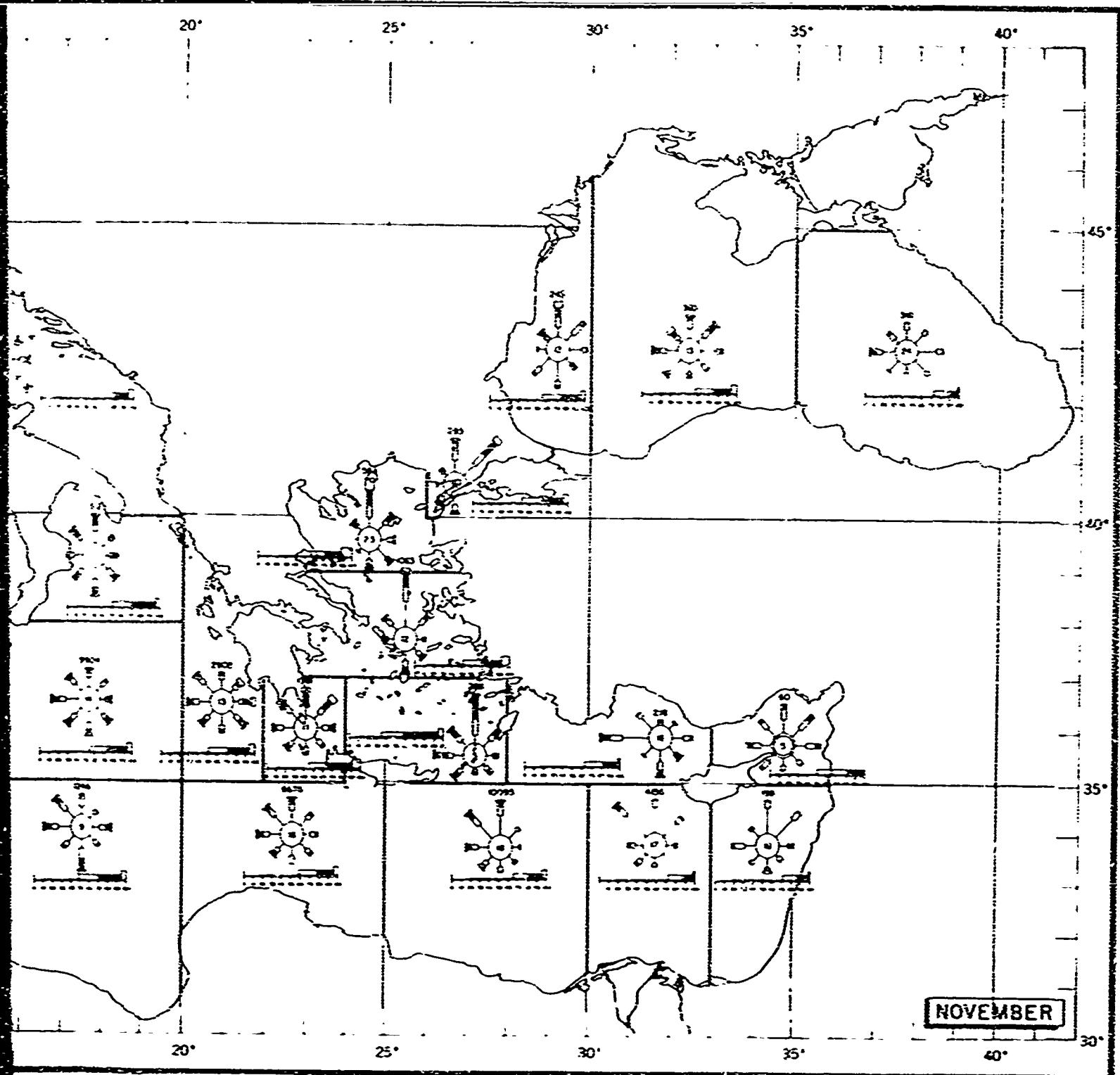


FIGURE 34. SURFACE WINDS, NOVEMBER

2

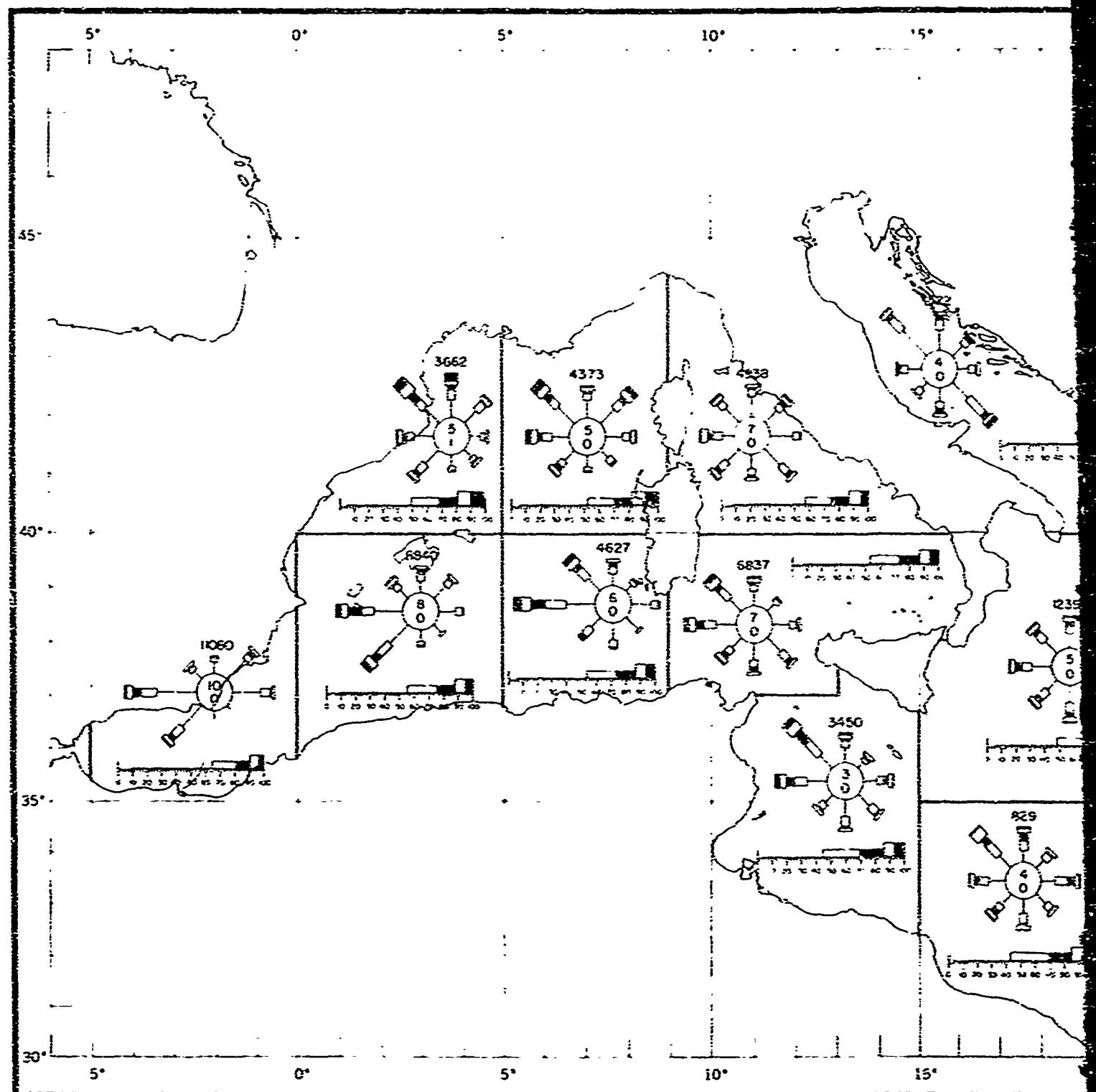
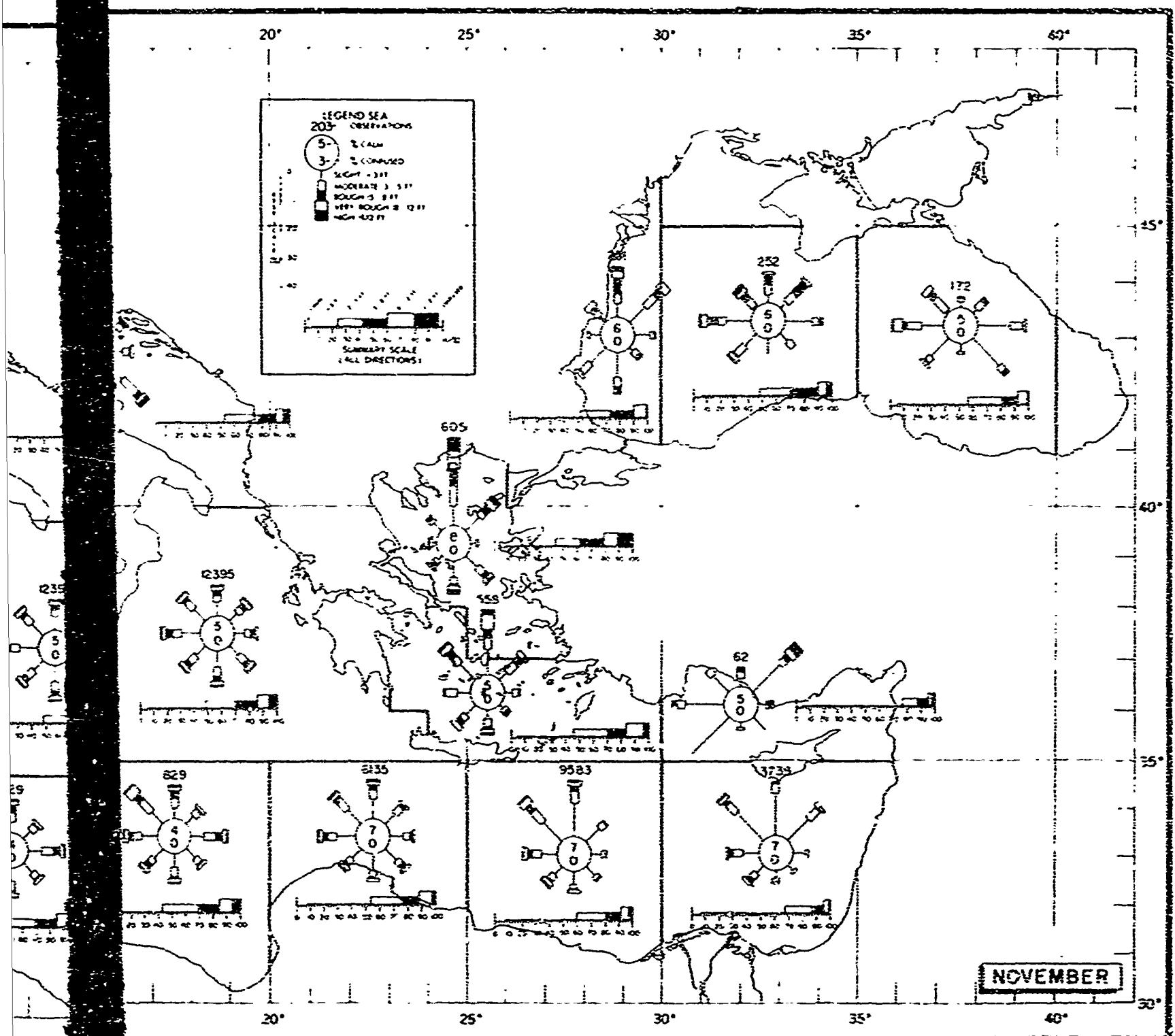


FIGURE 35. STATE OF SEA IN THE MEDITERRANEAN



THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, NOVEMBER

FIGURE 35. SEA, NOVEMBER

2

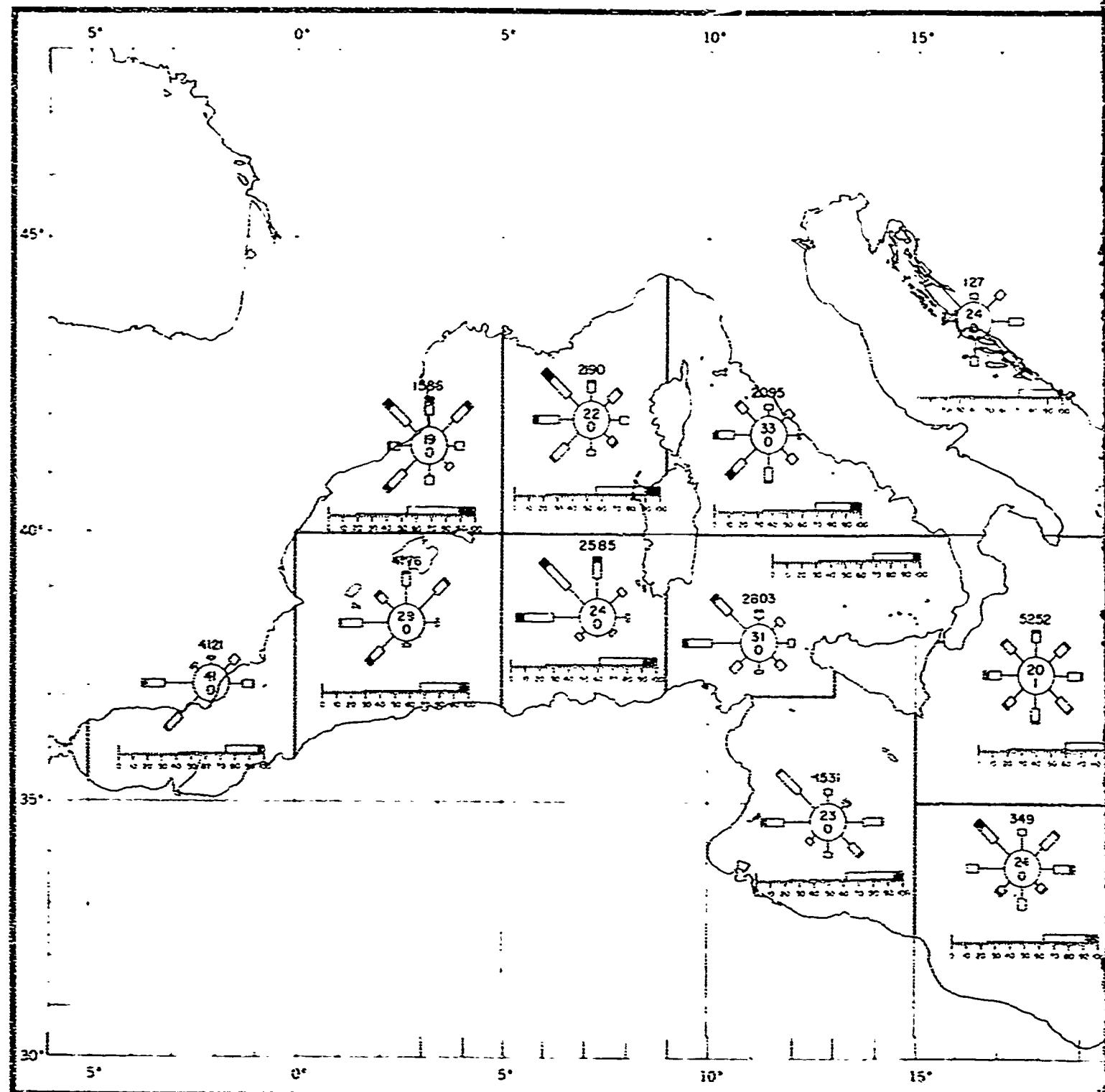
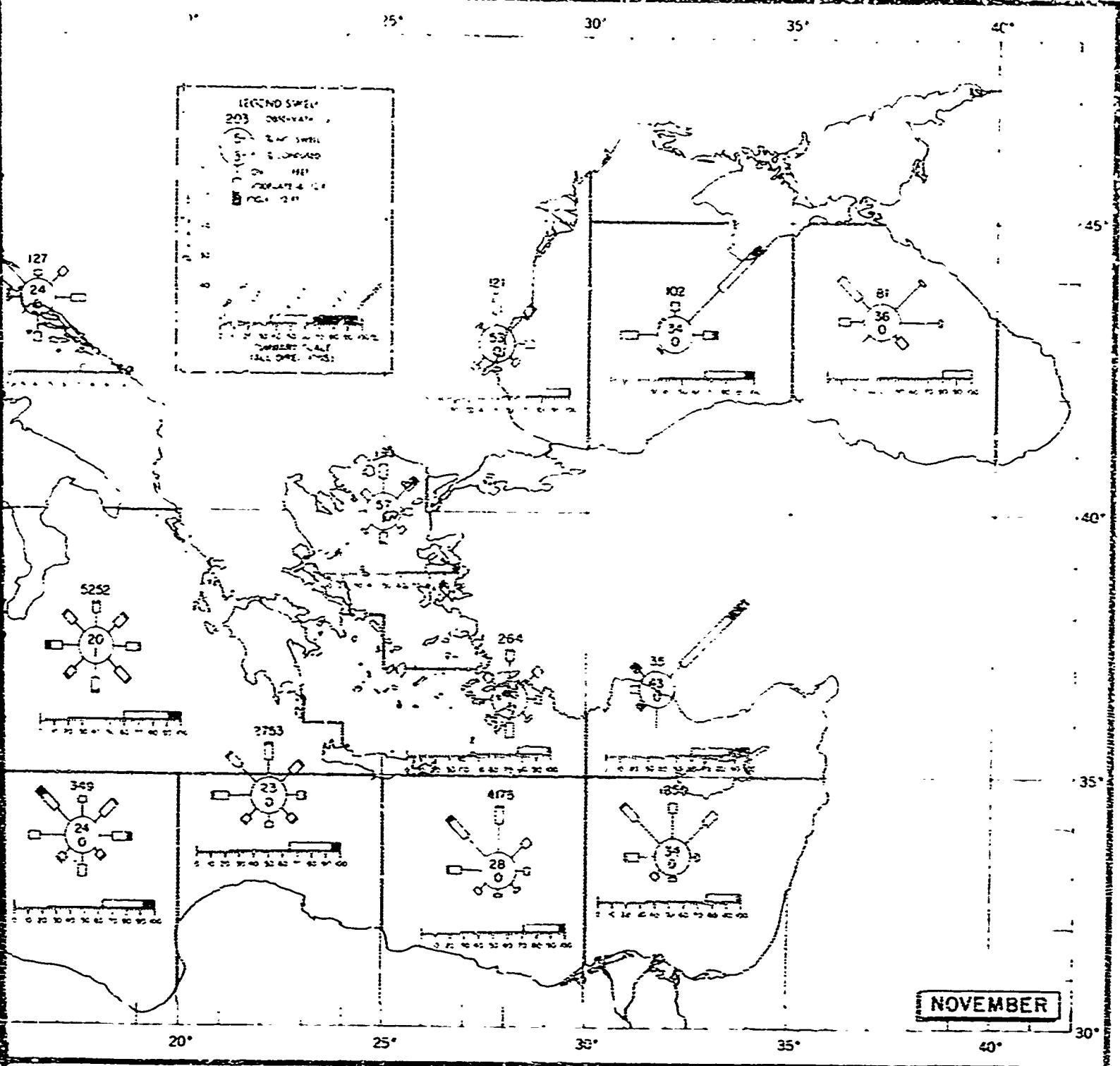


FIGURE 36. SWELL IN THE MEDITERRANEAN



SWELL DIRECTIONS AND SPEEDS IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, NOVEMBER

FIGURE 36. SWELL, NOVEMBER.

2

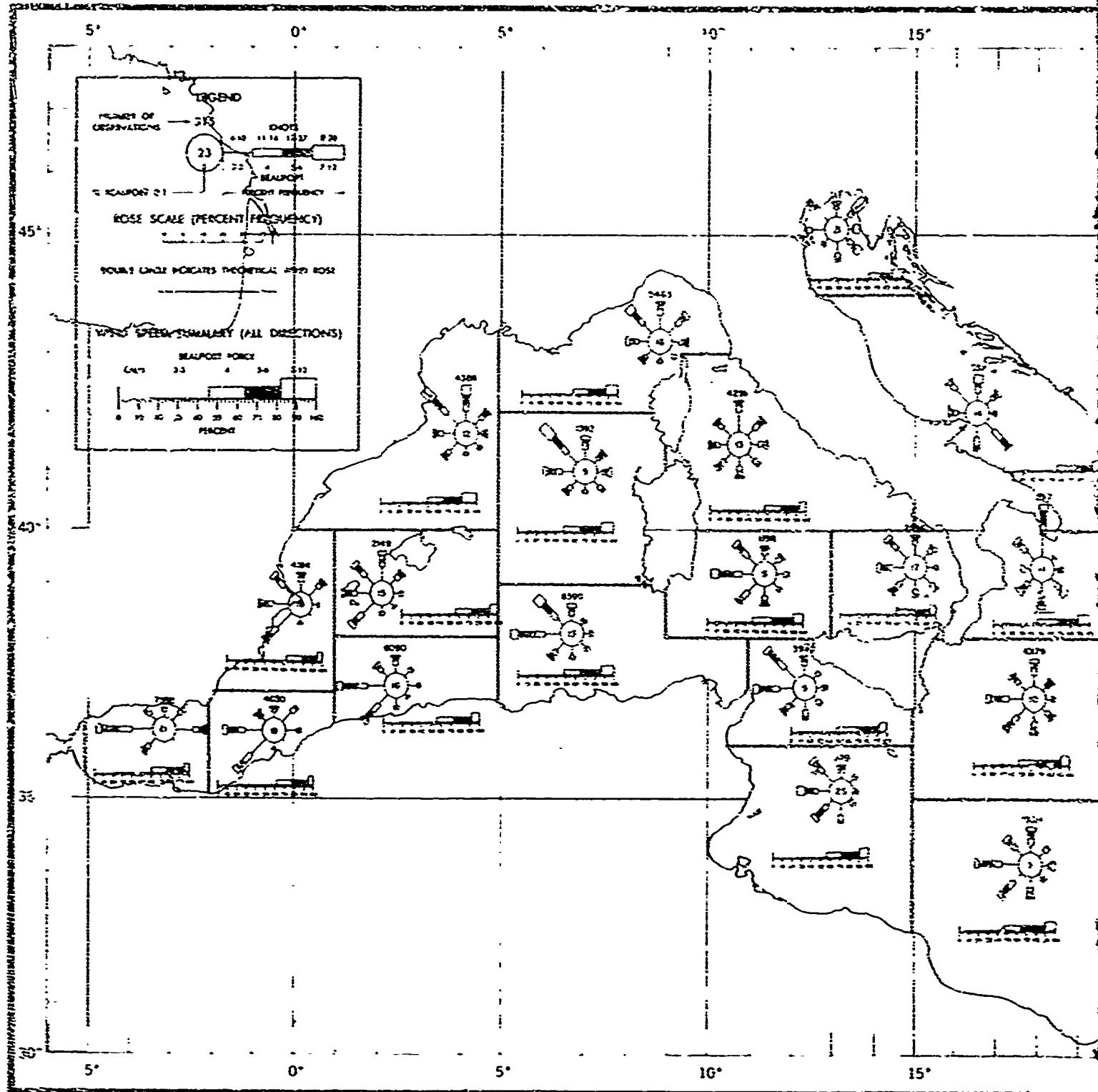


FIGURE 27. SURFACE WIND ROSES, THE MEDITERRANEAN

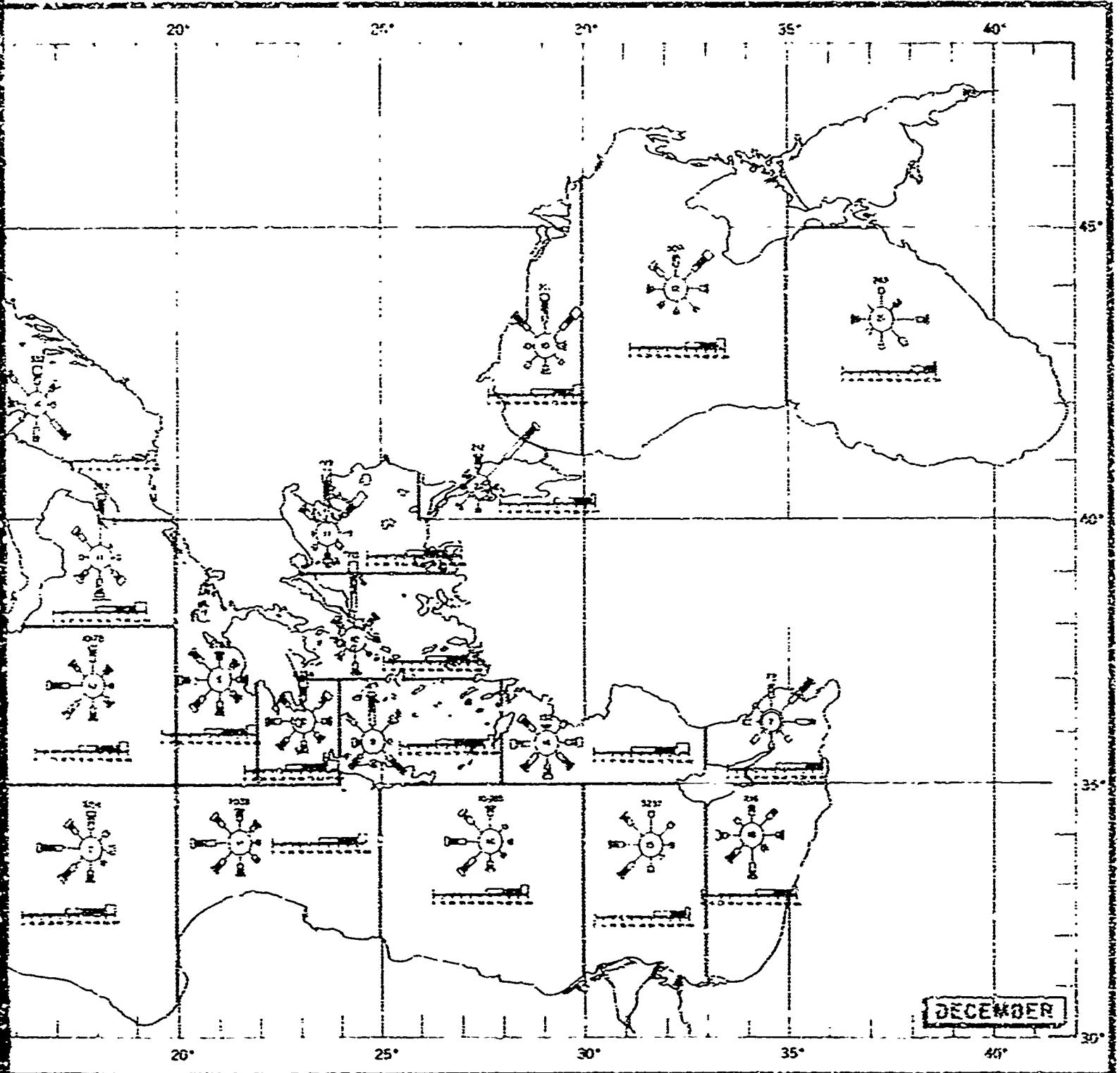


FIGURE 37. SURFACE WINDS, DECEMBER

FIGURE 37. SURFACE WINDS, DECEMBER

28

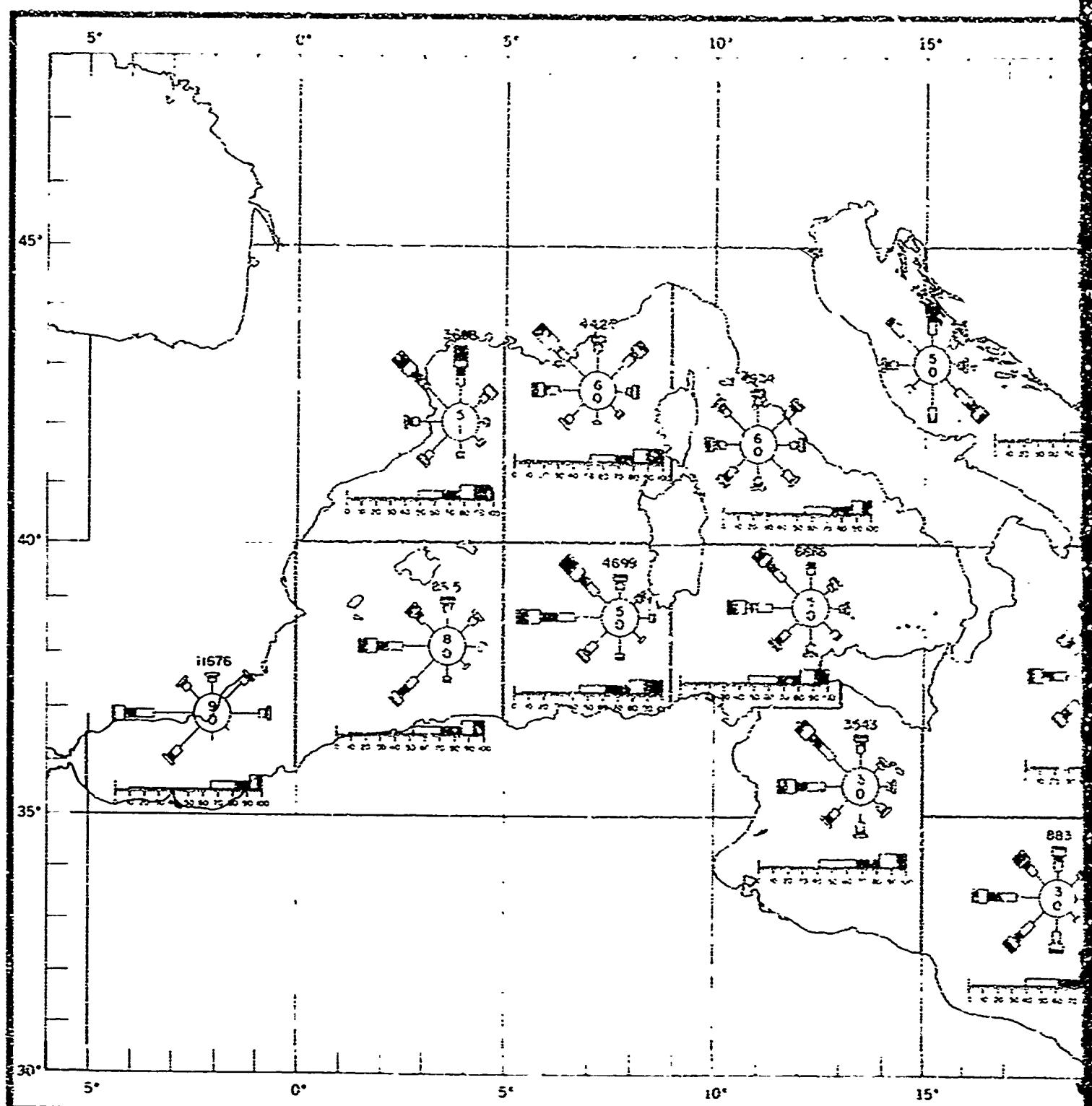
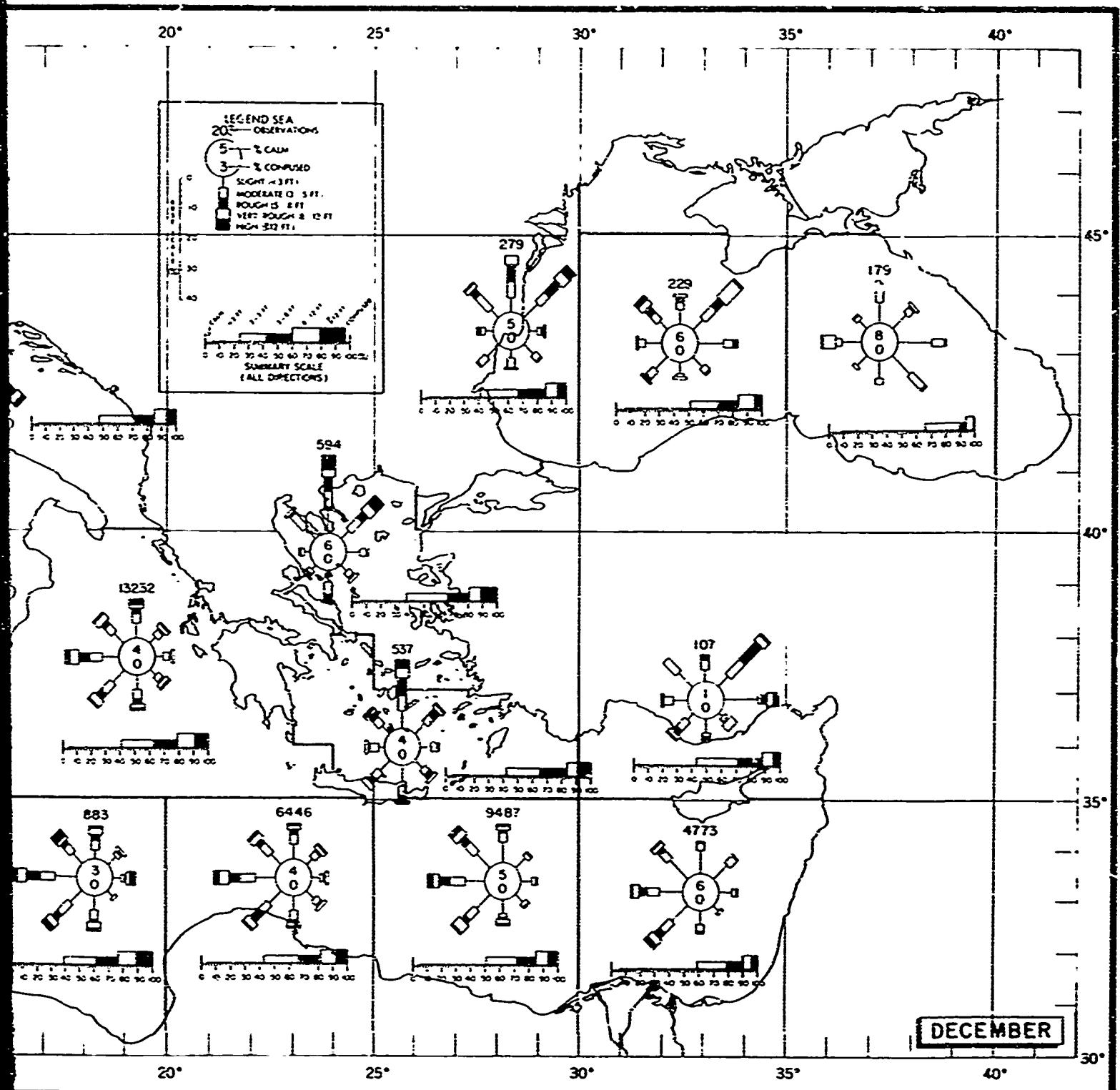


FIGURE 36. STATE OF THE SEA IN THE MEDITERRANEAN



## **IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, DECEMBER**

FIGURE 36. SEA, DECEMBER

2

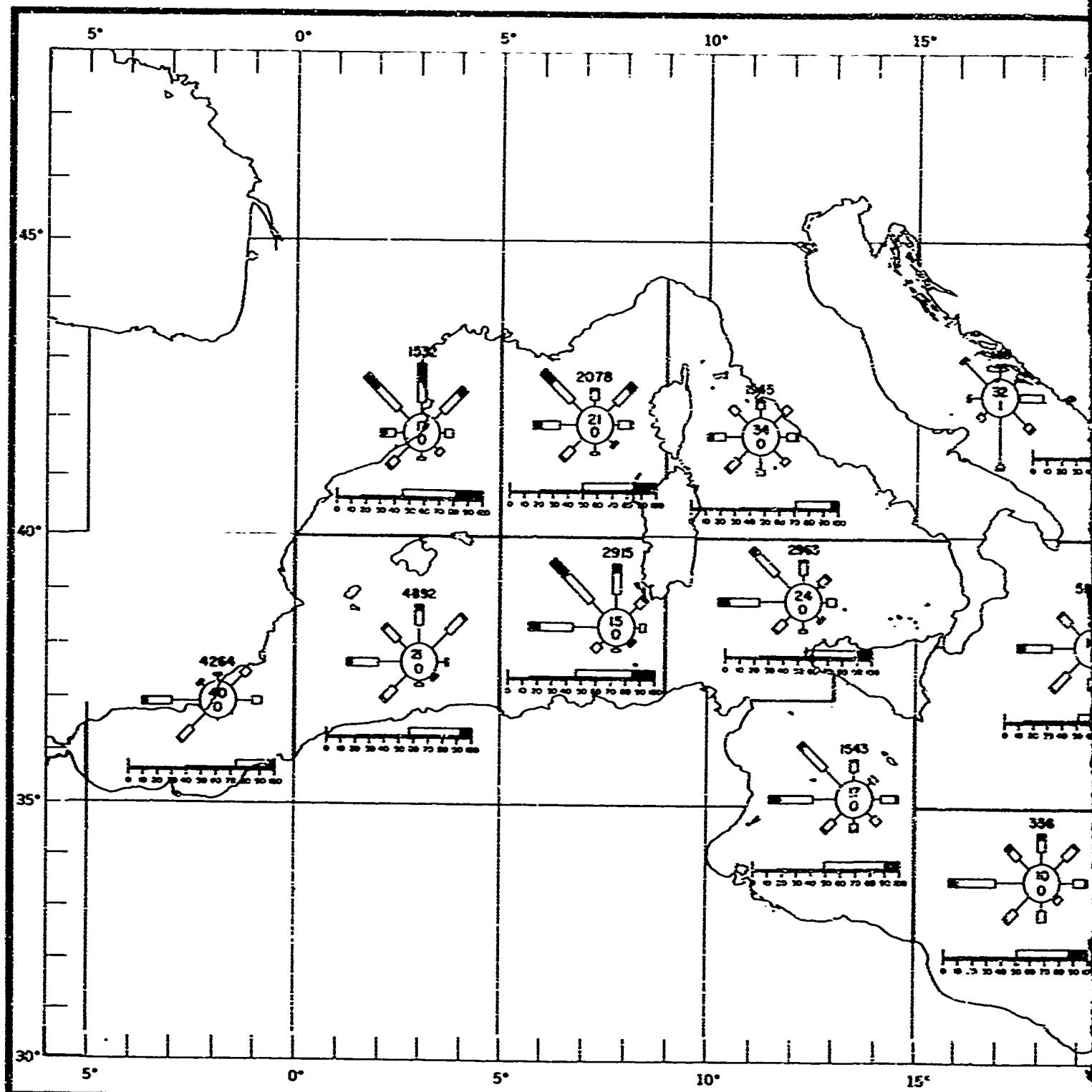
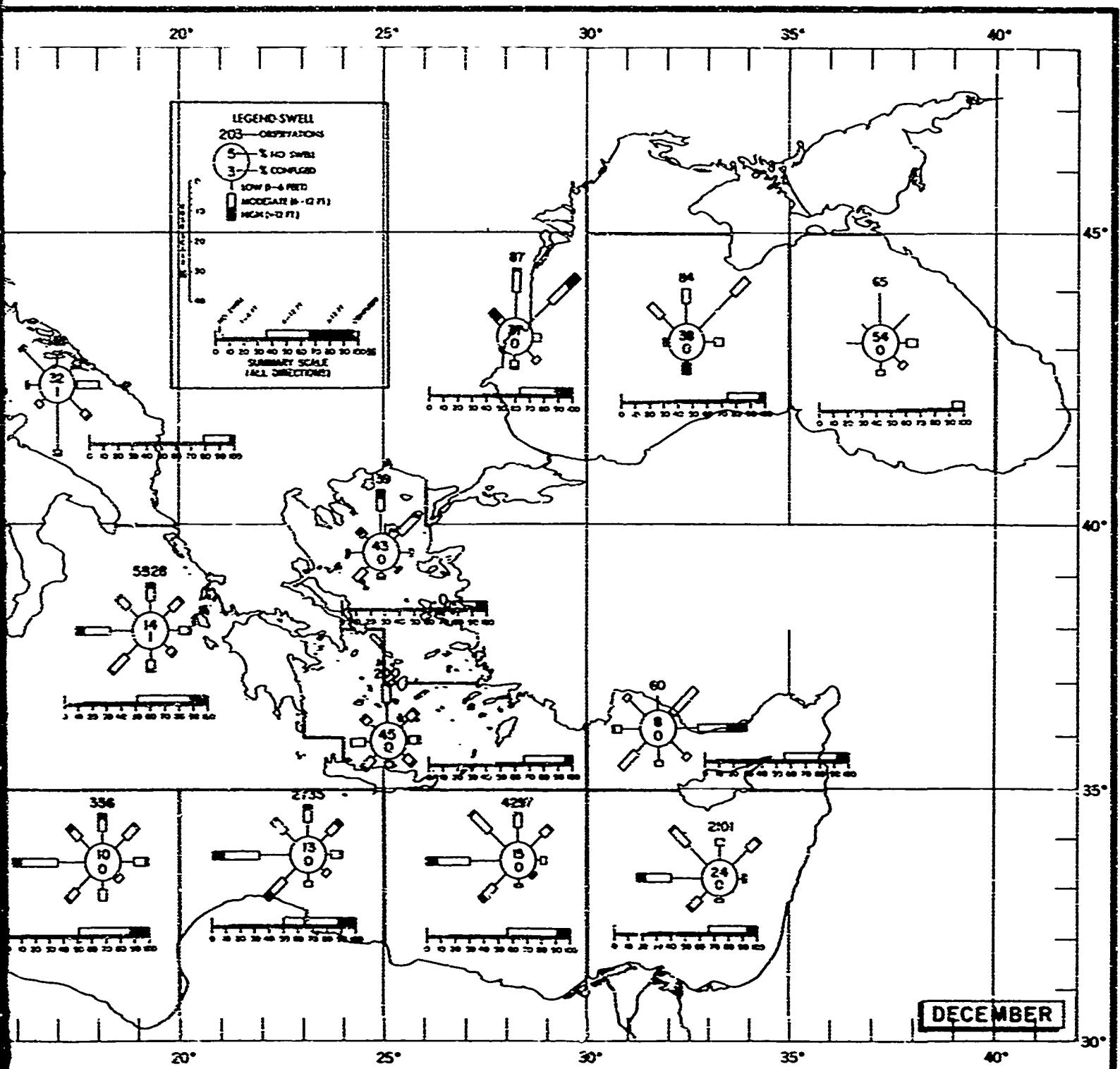


FIGURE 39. SWELL IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA.



MEDITERRANEAN SEA, DECEMBER

FIGURE 39. SWELL, DECEMBER

2

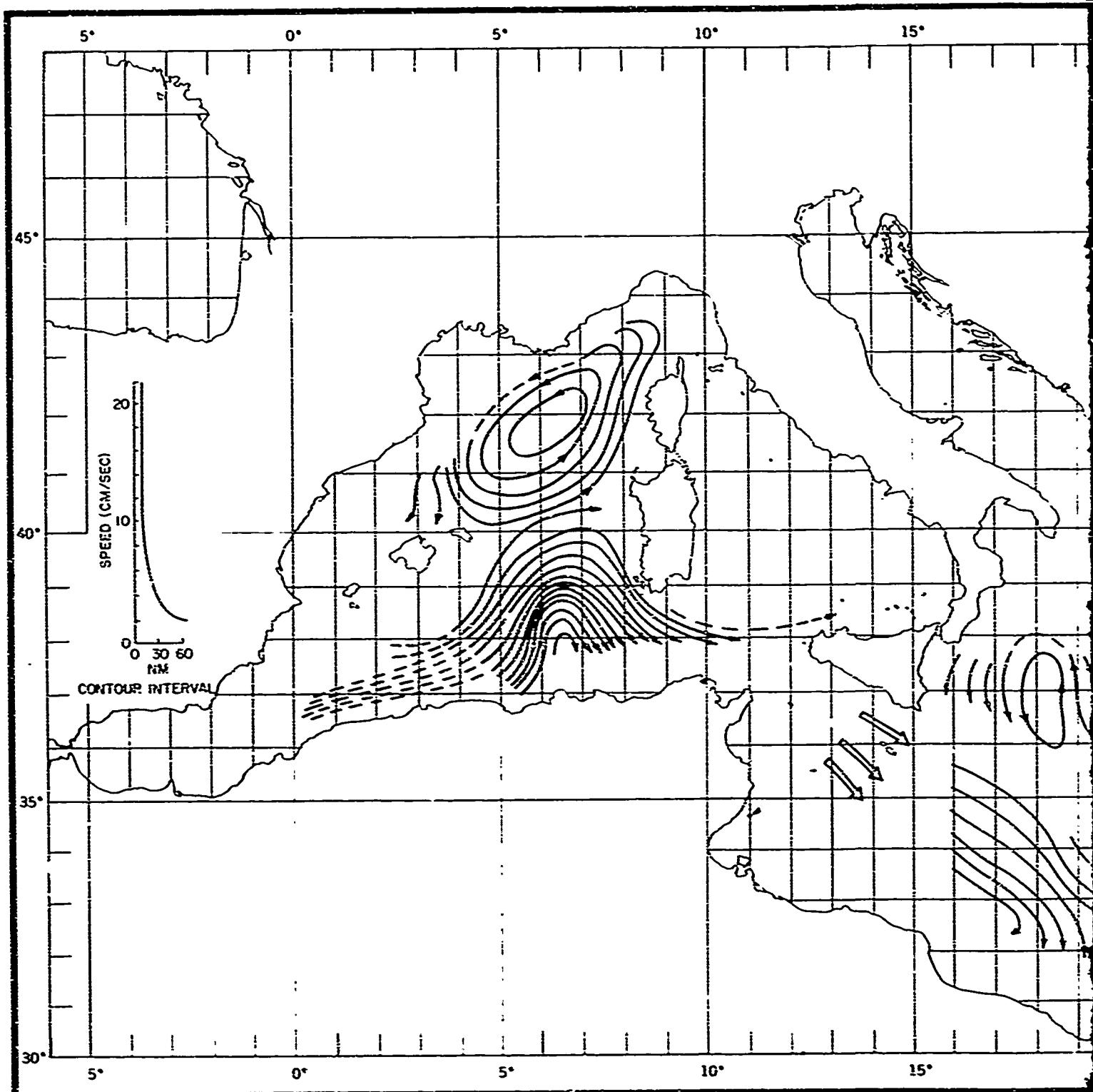
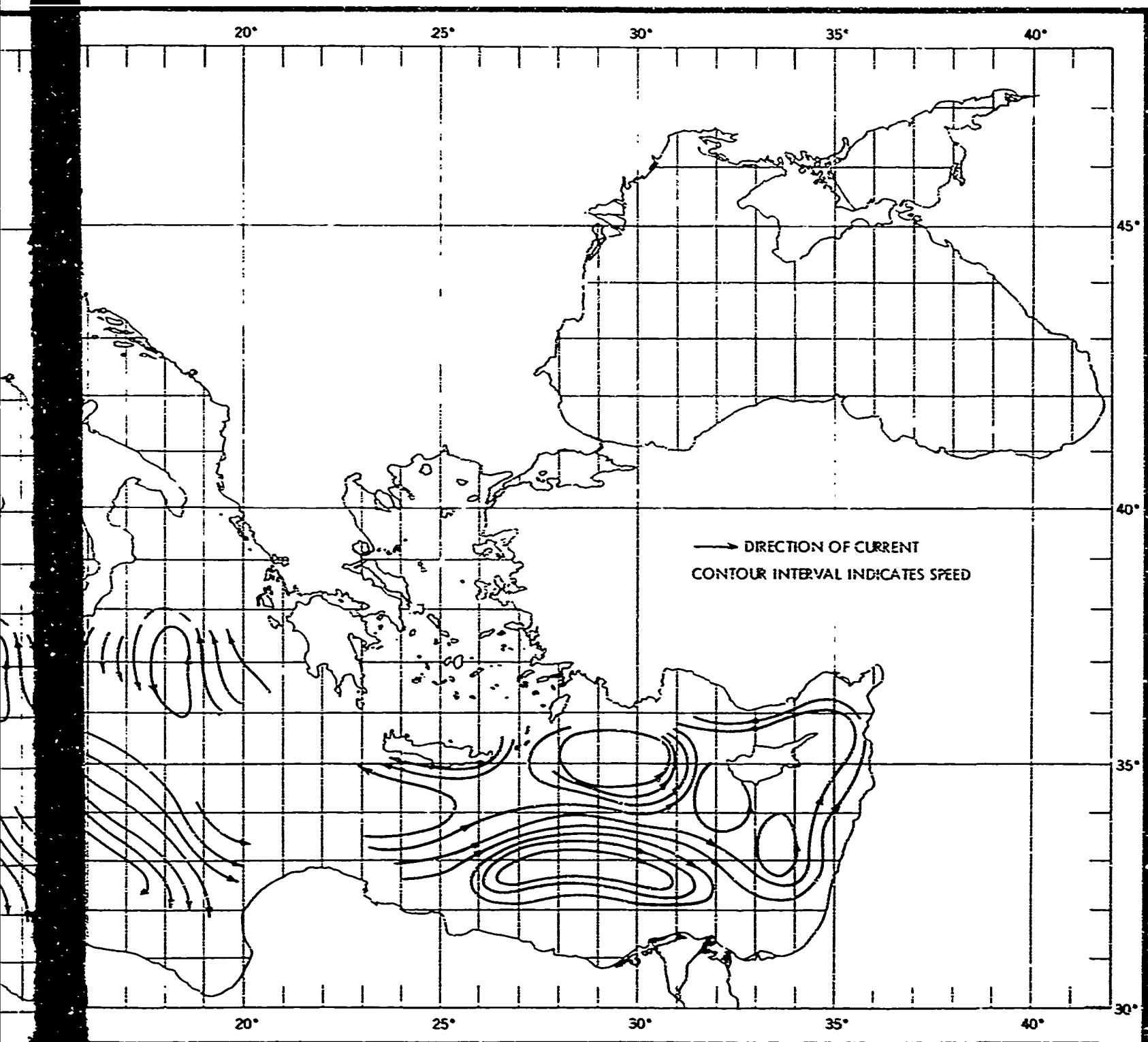


FIGURE 40. SURFACE CURRENT VELOCITY RELATIVE TO THE



THE CURRENT VELOCITY AT 1,000 METERS, WINTER

FIGURE 40. SURFACE CURRENT VELOCITY, WINTER

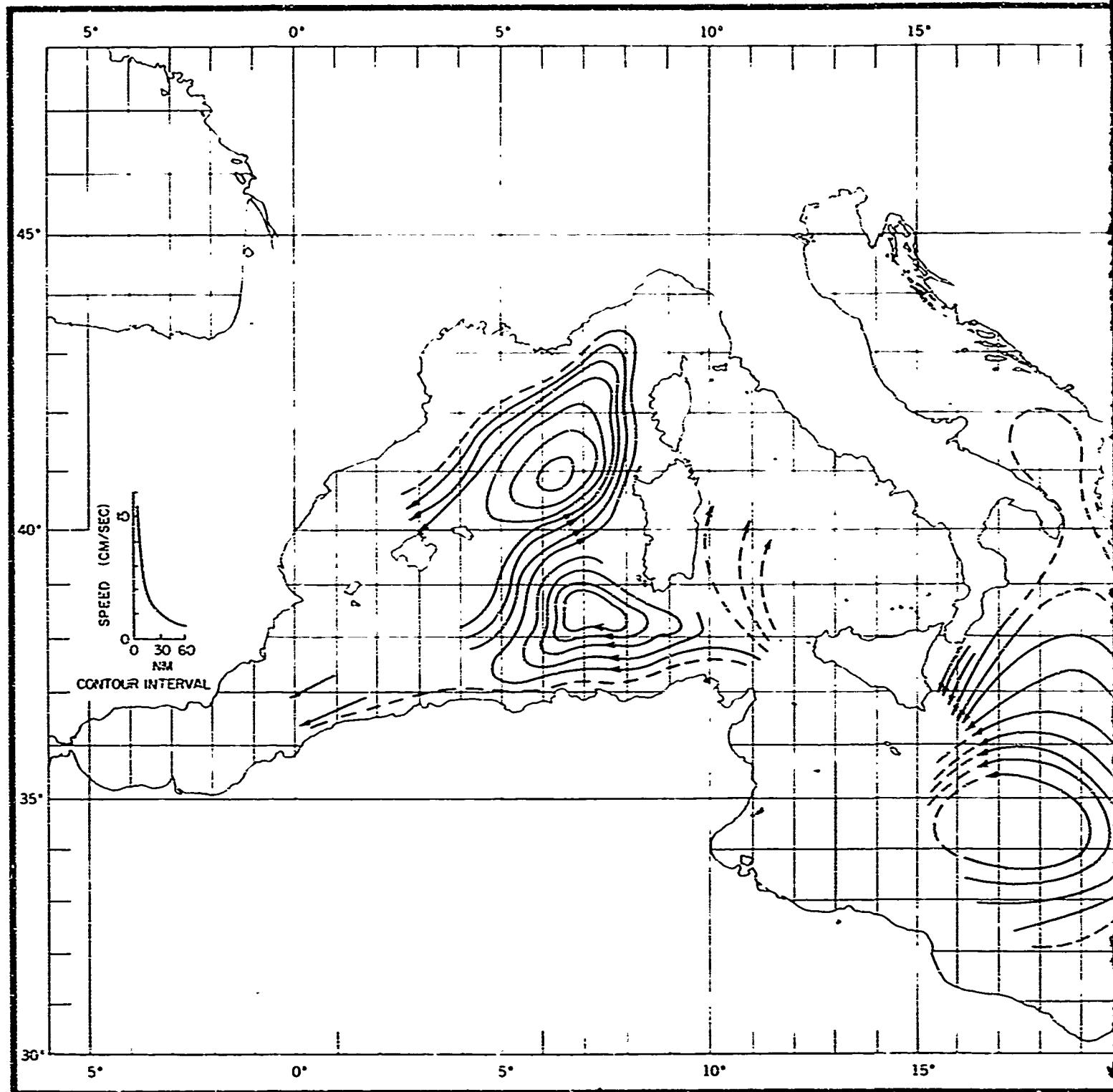
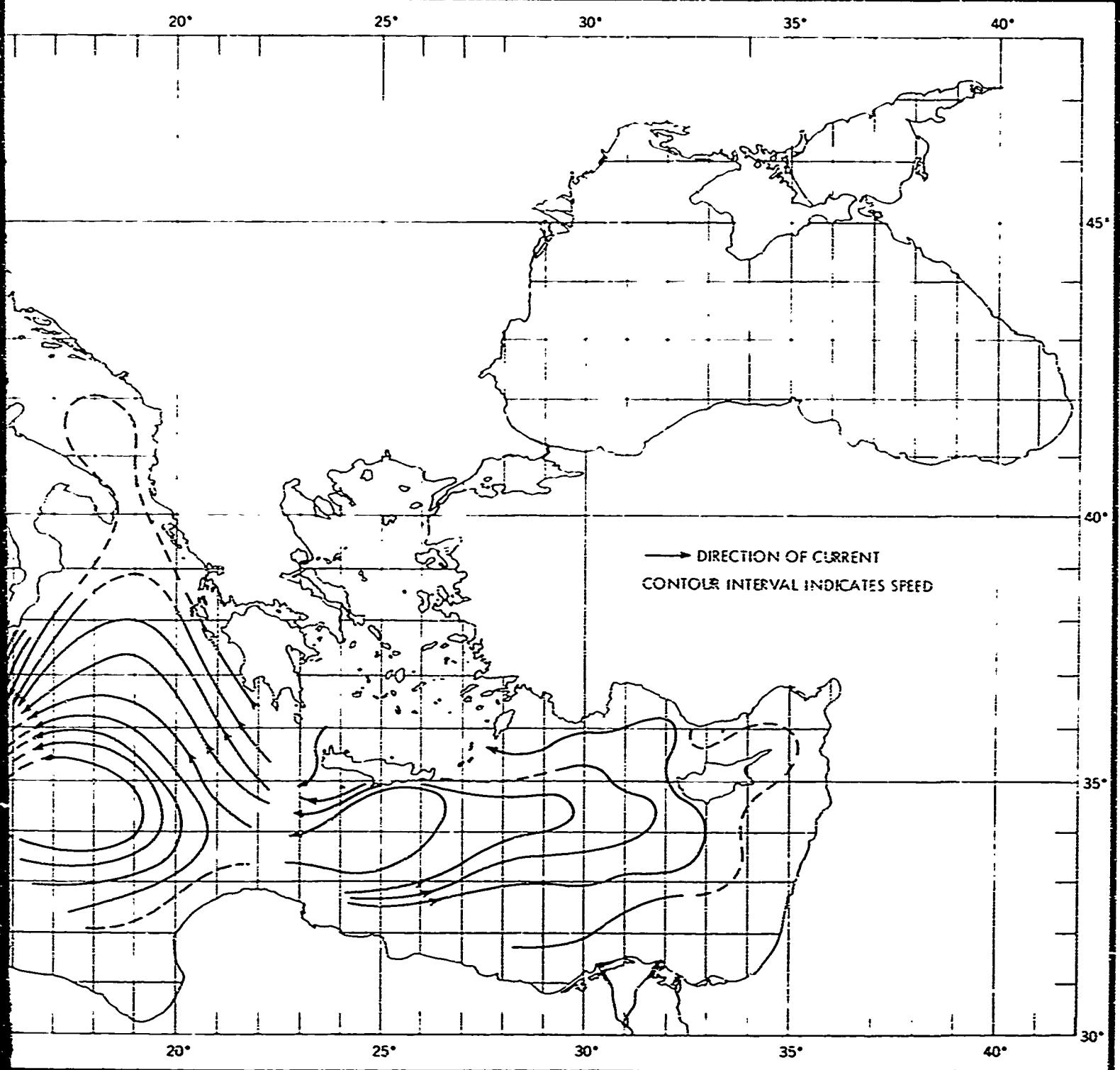


FIGURE 41. CURRENT VELOCITY AT 500 METERS RELATIVE TO THE



THE COUNTERCURRENTS RELATIVE TO THE CURRENT VELOCITY AT 1,000 METERS, WINTER

FIGURE 41. CURRENT VELOCITY AT 500 METERS, WINTER

2

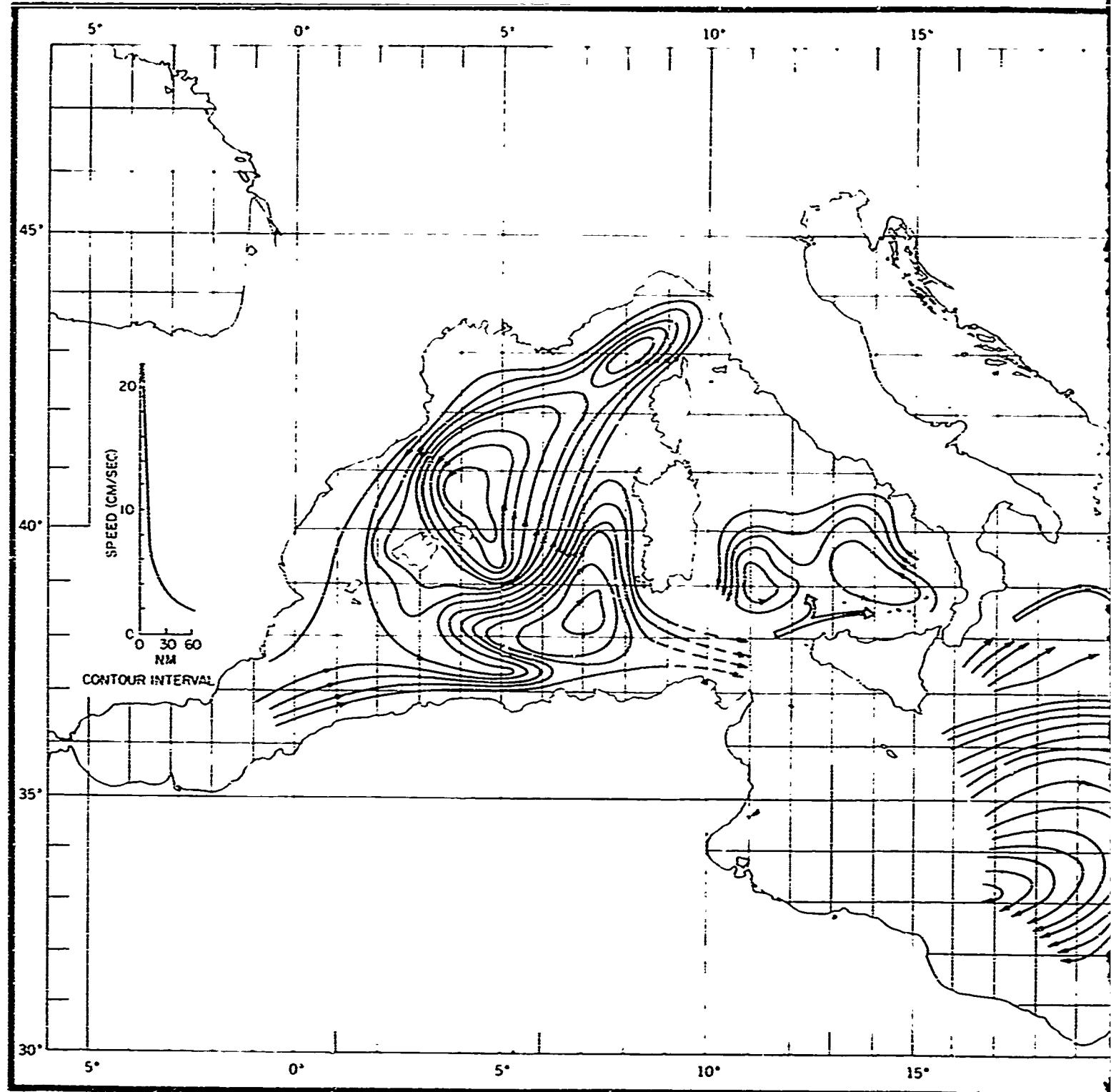
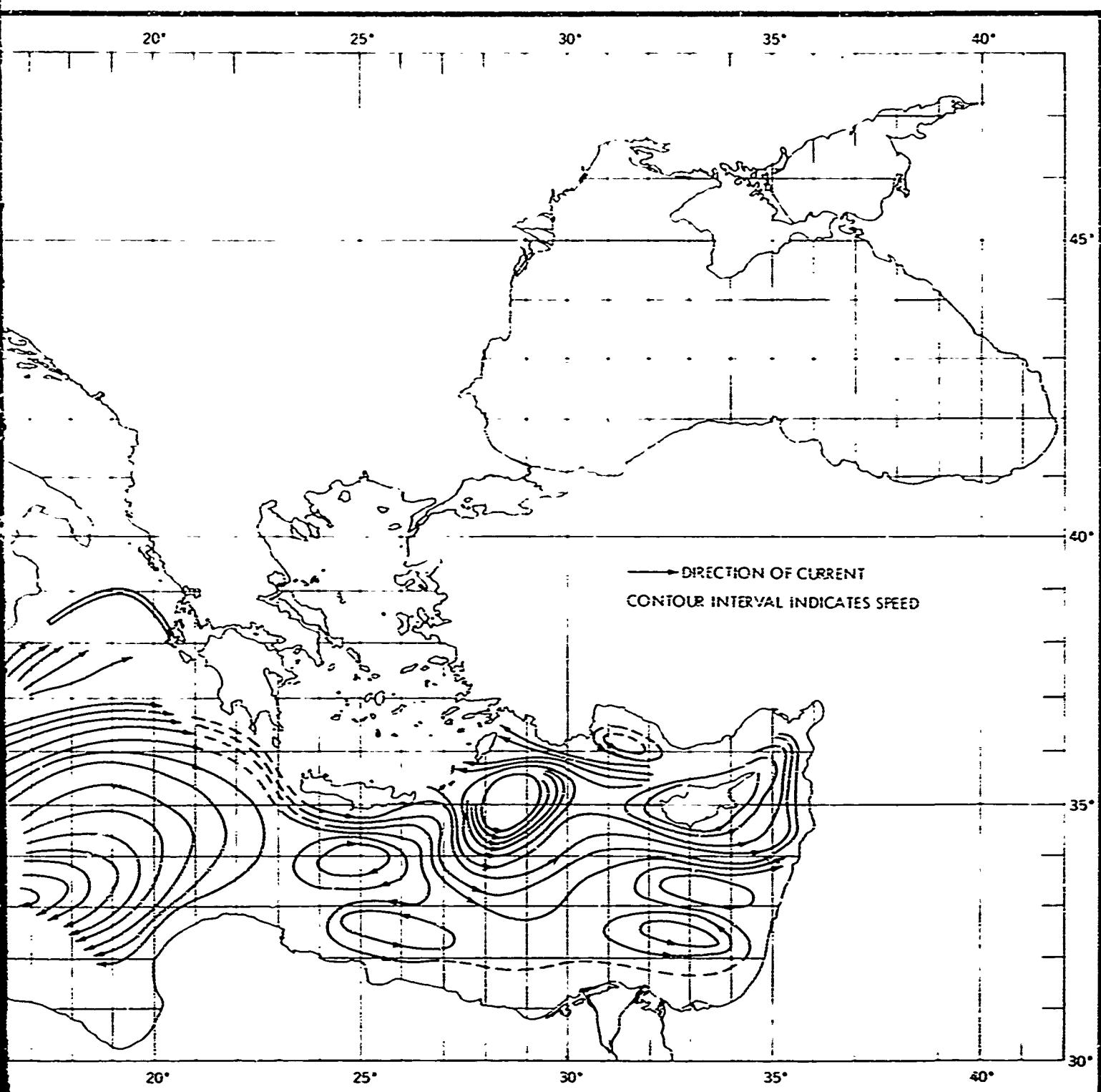


FIGURE 42. SURFACE CURRENT VELOCITY RELATIVE TO THE CURRENT METER



LATIVE TO THE CURRENT VELOCITY AT 1,000 METERS, SUMMER

FIGURE 42. SURFACE CURRENT VELOCITY, SUMMER

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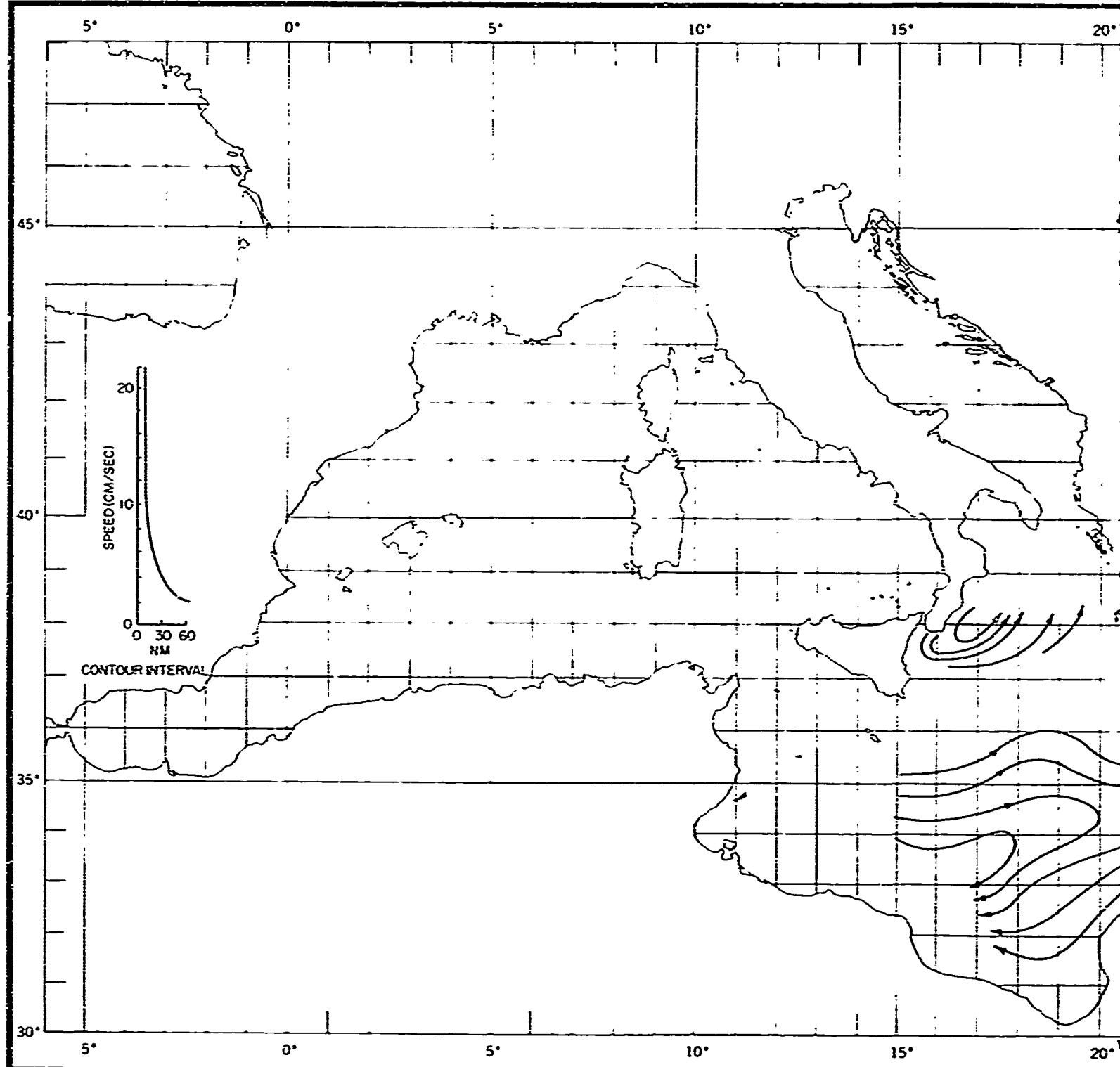
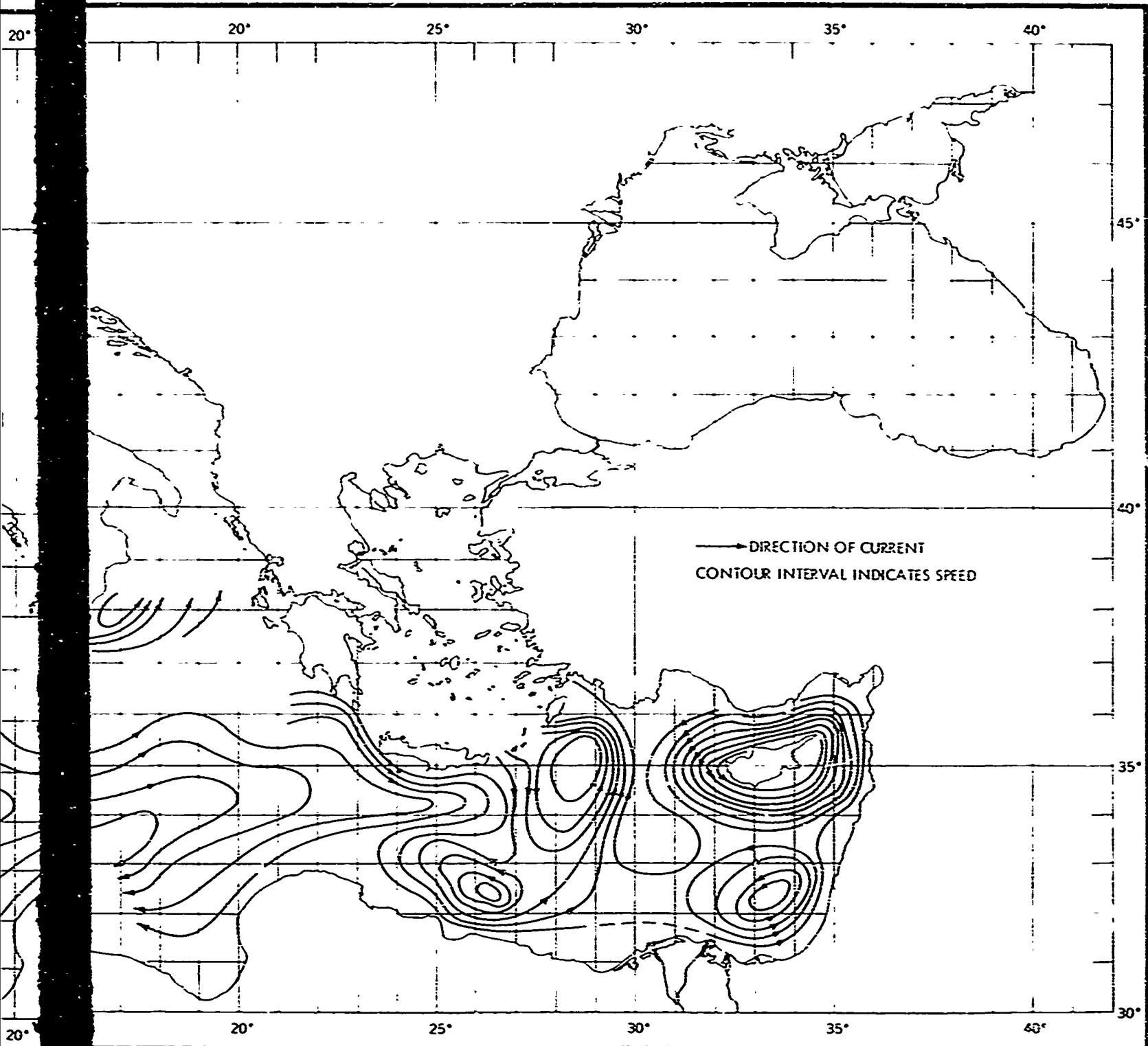


FIGURE 43. CURRENT VELOCITY AT 250 METERS RELATIVE TO THE CUR



CURRENT VELOCITY AT 250 METERS, SUMMER

FIGURE 43. CURRENT VELOCITY AT 250 METERS, SUMMER

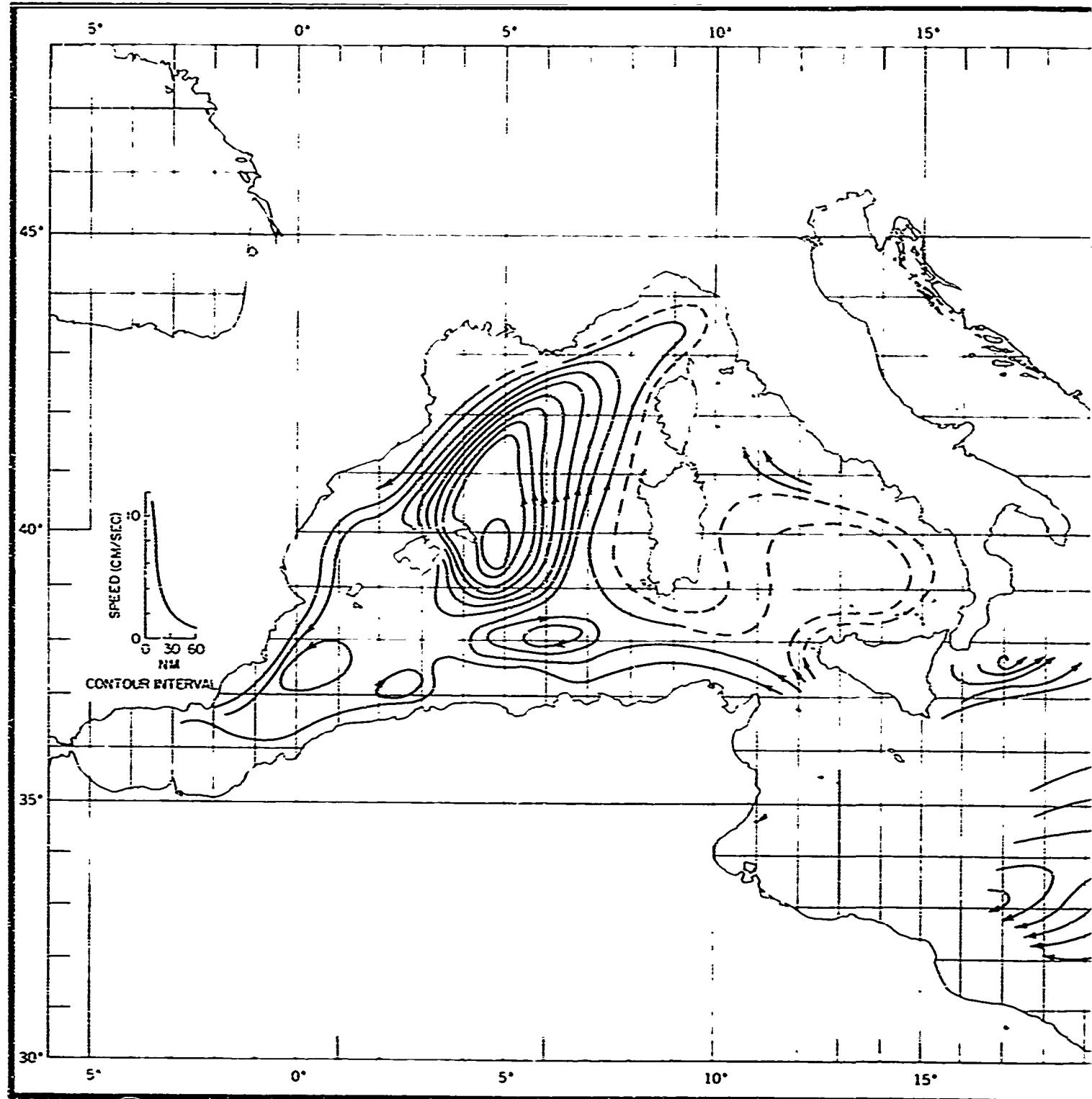
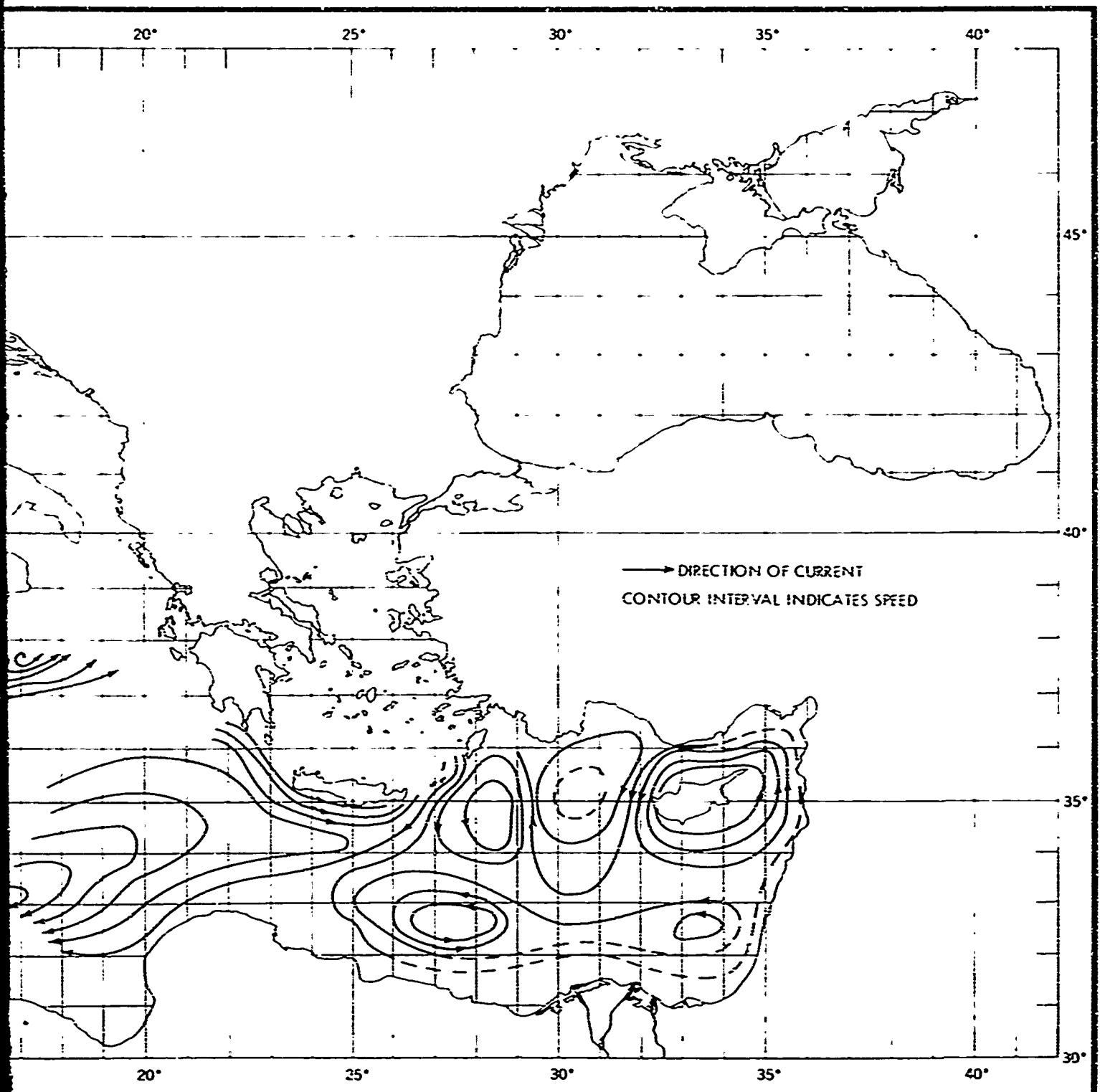


FIGURE 44. CURRENT VELOCITY AT 500 METERS RELATIVE TO THE BOTTOM



TO THE RELATIVE TO THE CURRENT VELOCITY AT 1,000 METERS, SUMMER

FIGURE 44. CURRENT VELOCITY AT 500 METERS, SUMMER

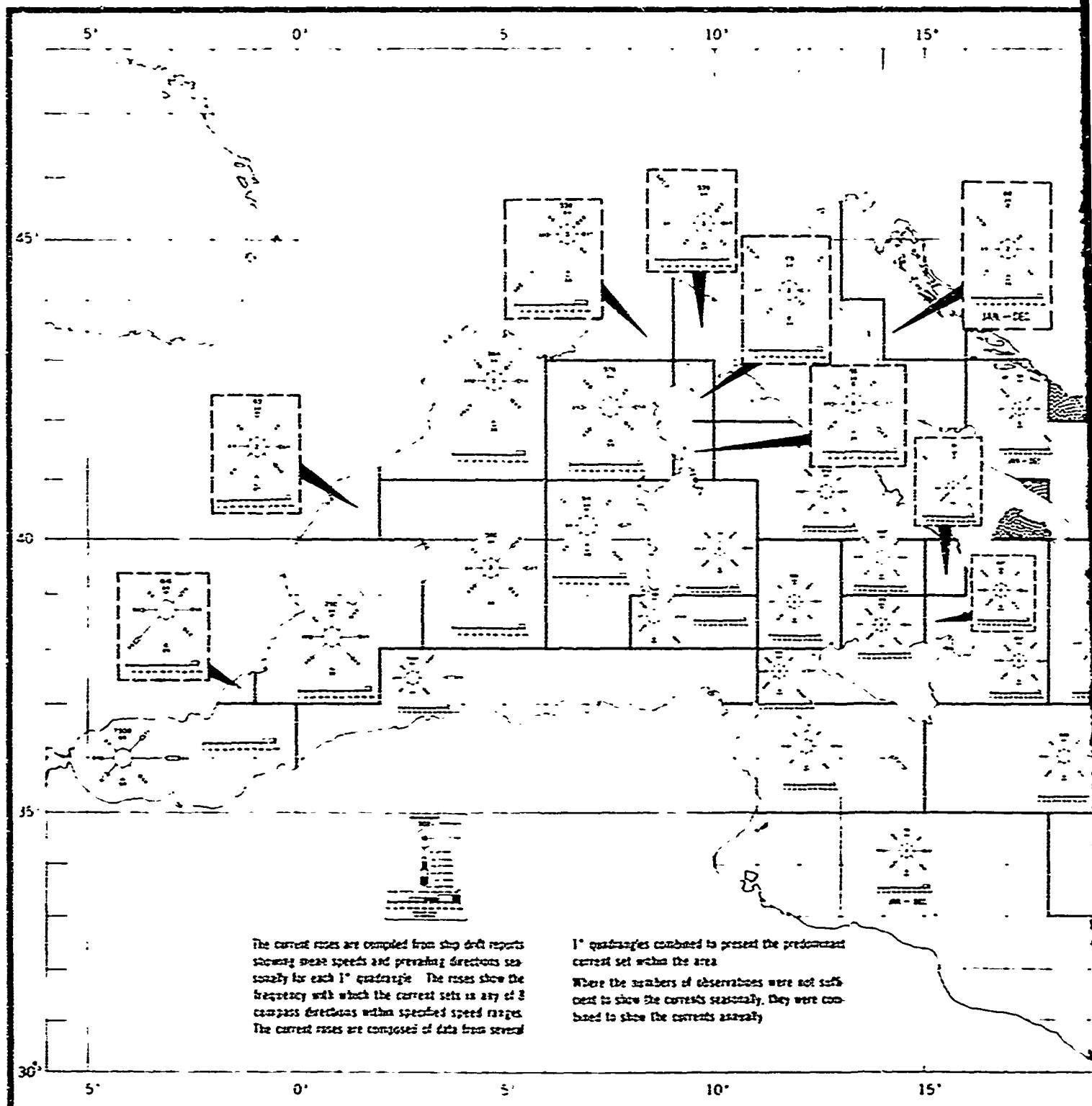
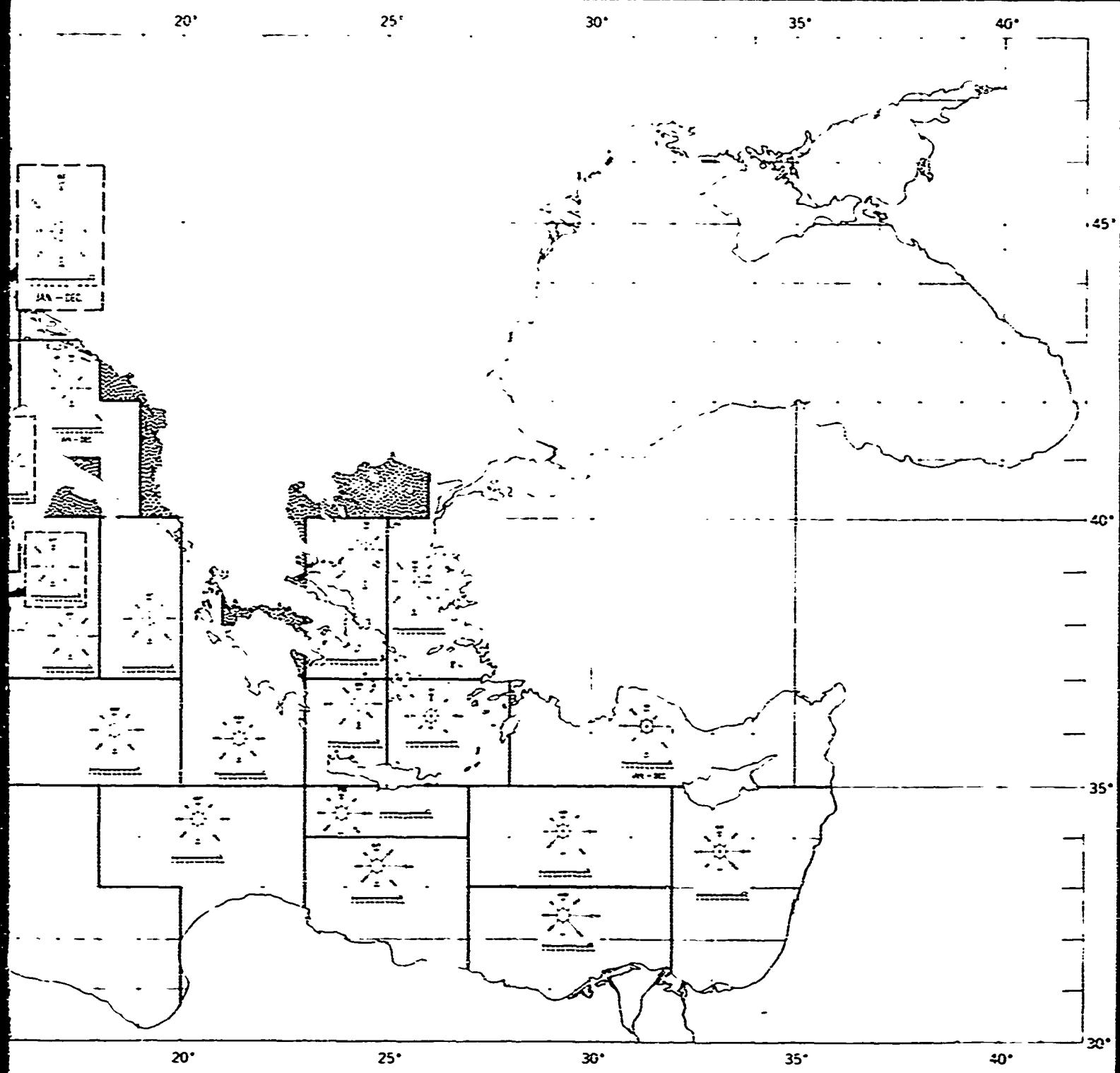


FIGURE 45. SURFACE CURRENT ROSES IN THE



THE CURRENT ROSES IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, WINTER

FIGURE 45. SURFACE CURRENTS, WINTER

2

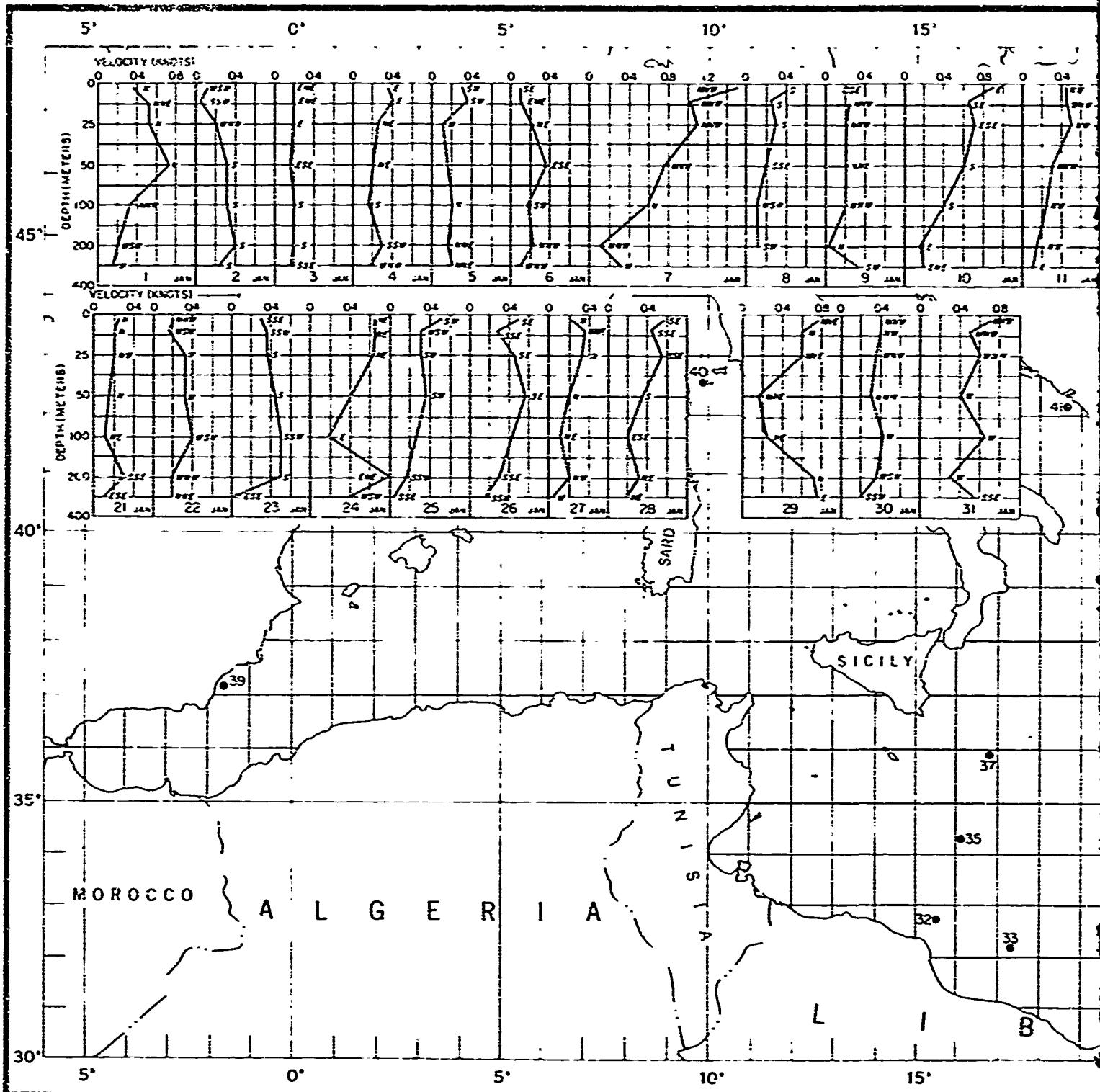
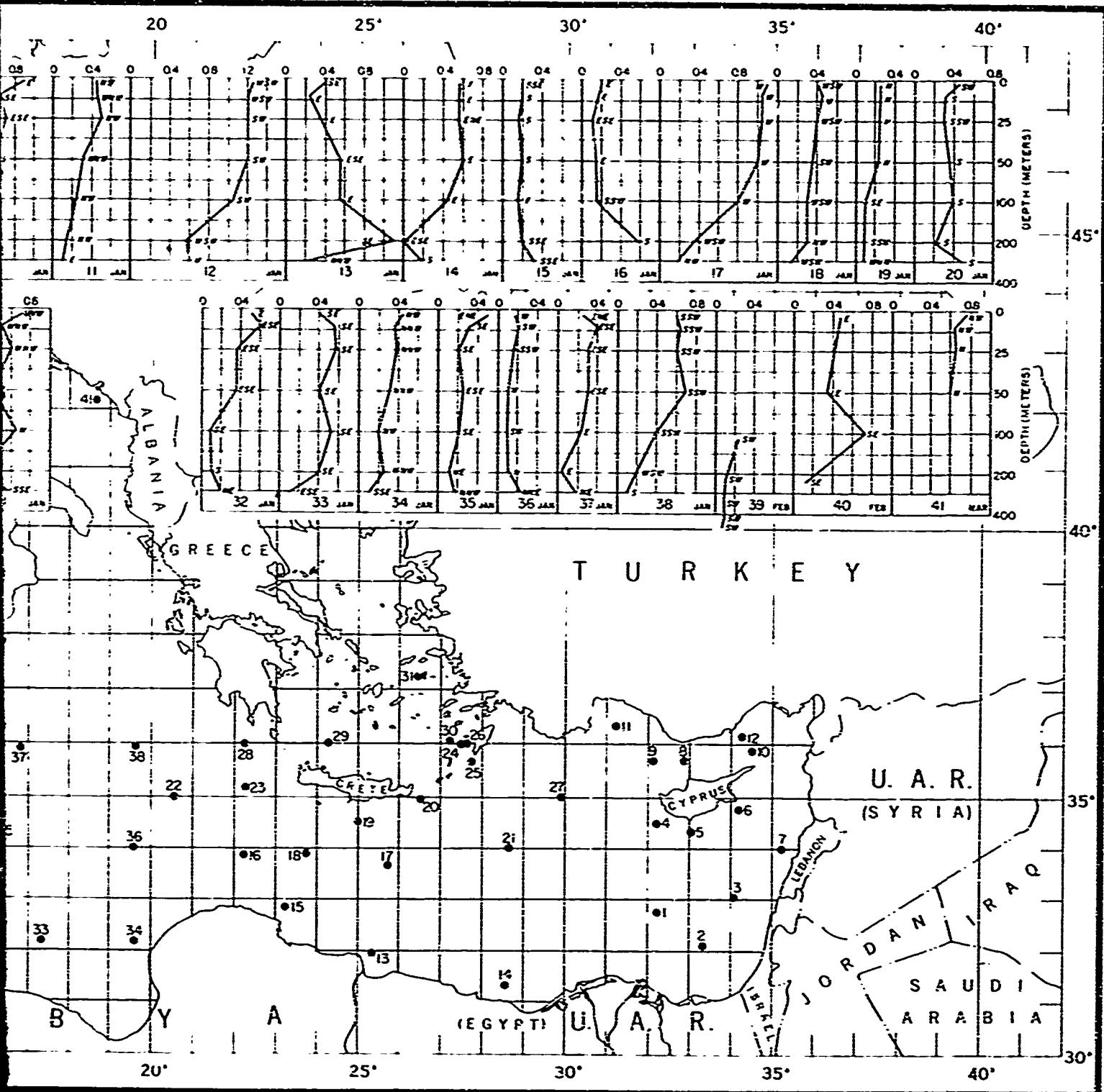


FIGURE 46. SUBSURFACE CURRENTS IN THE



CURRENTS IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, WINTER

FIGURE 46. SUBSURFACE CURRENTS, WINTER

2

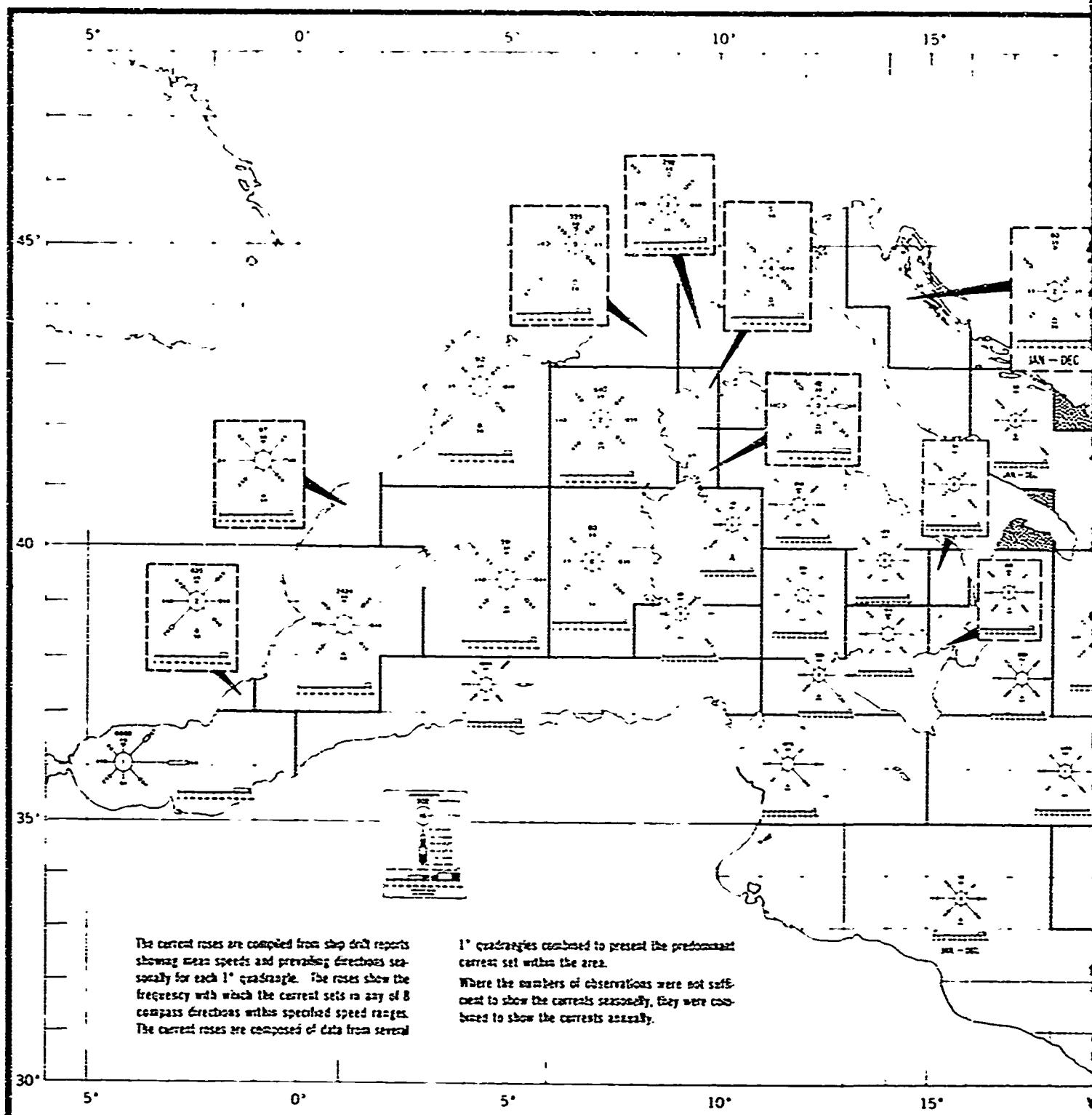
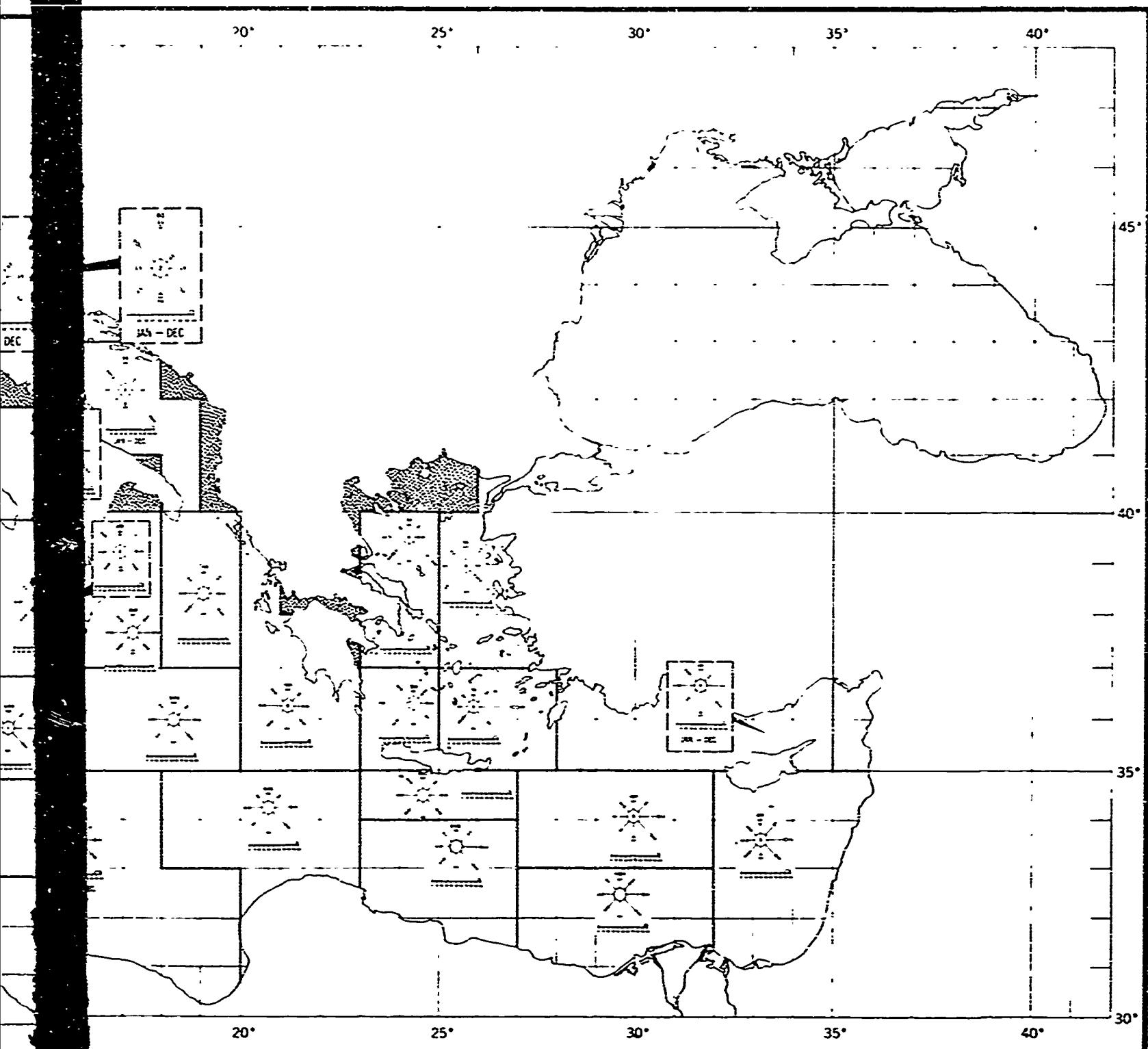


FIGURE 47. SURFACE CURRENT ROSES IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA



IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, SPRING

FIGURE 47. SURFACE CURRENTS, SPRING

2

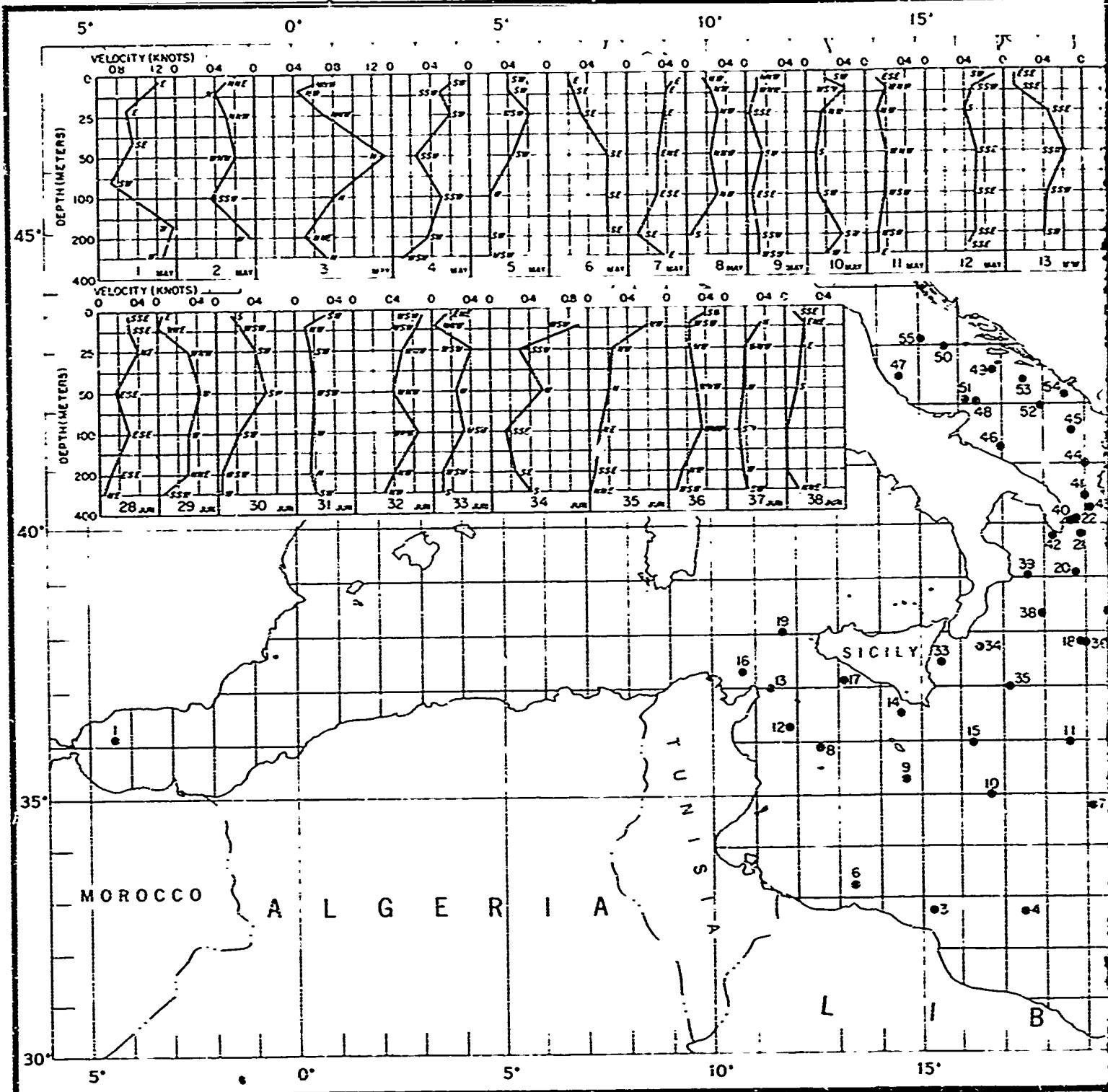
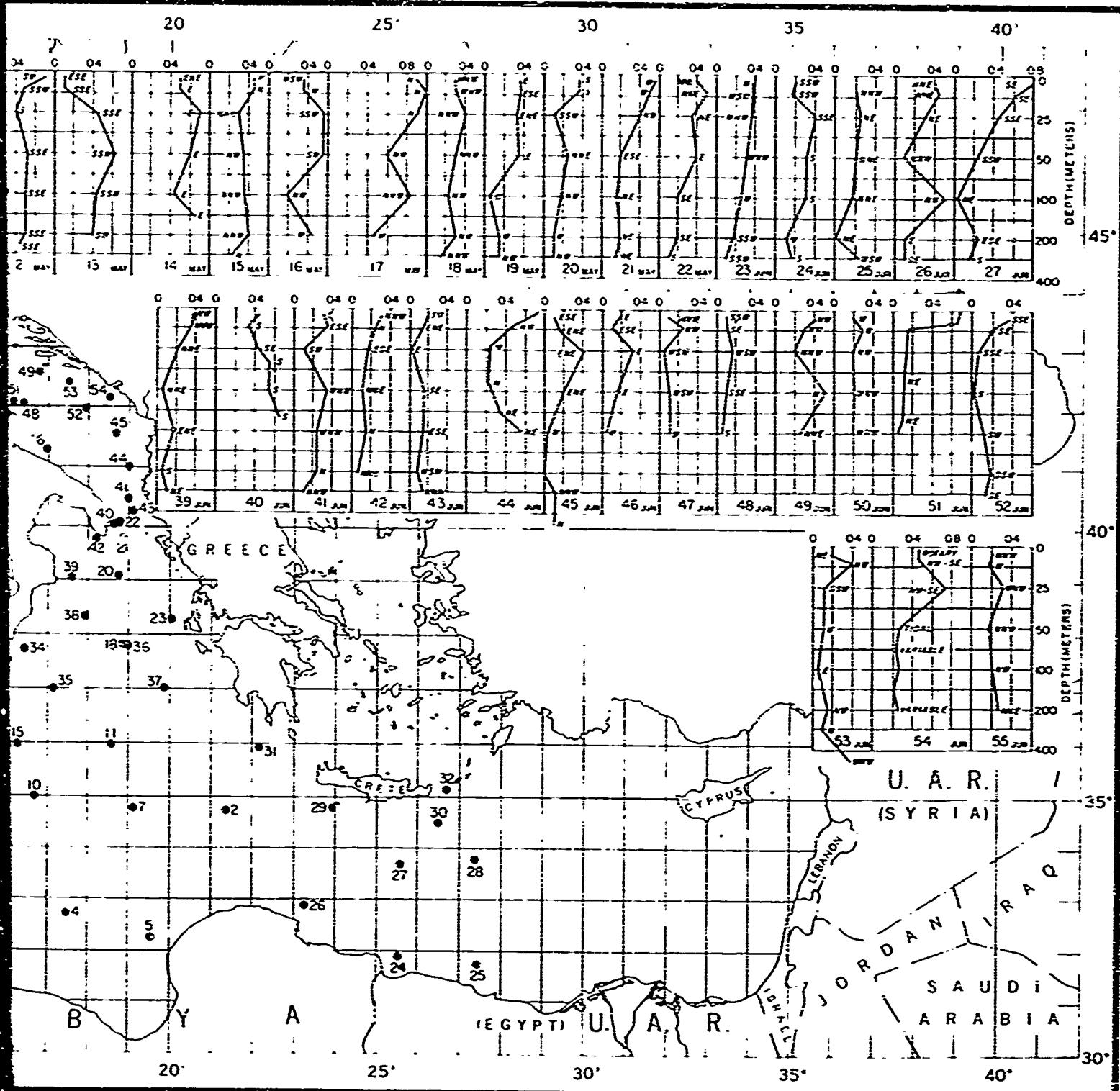


FIGURE 48. SUBSURFACE CURRENTS IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA



CURRENTS IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, SPRING

FIGURE 4B. SUBSURFACE CURRENTS, SPRING

2

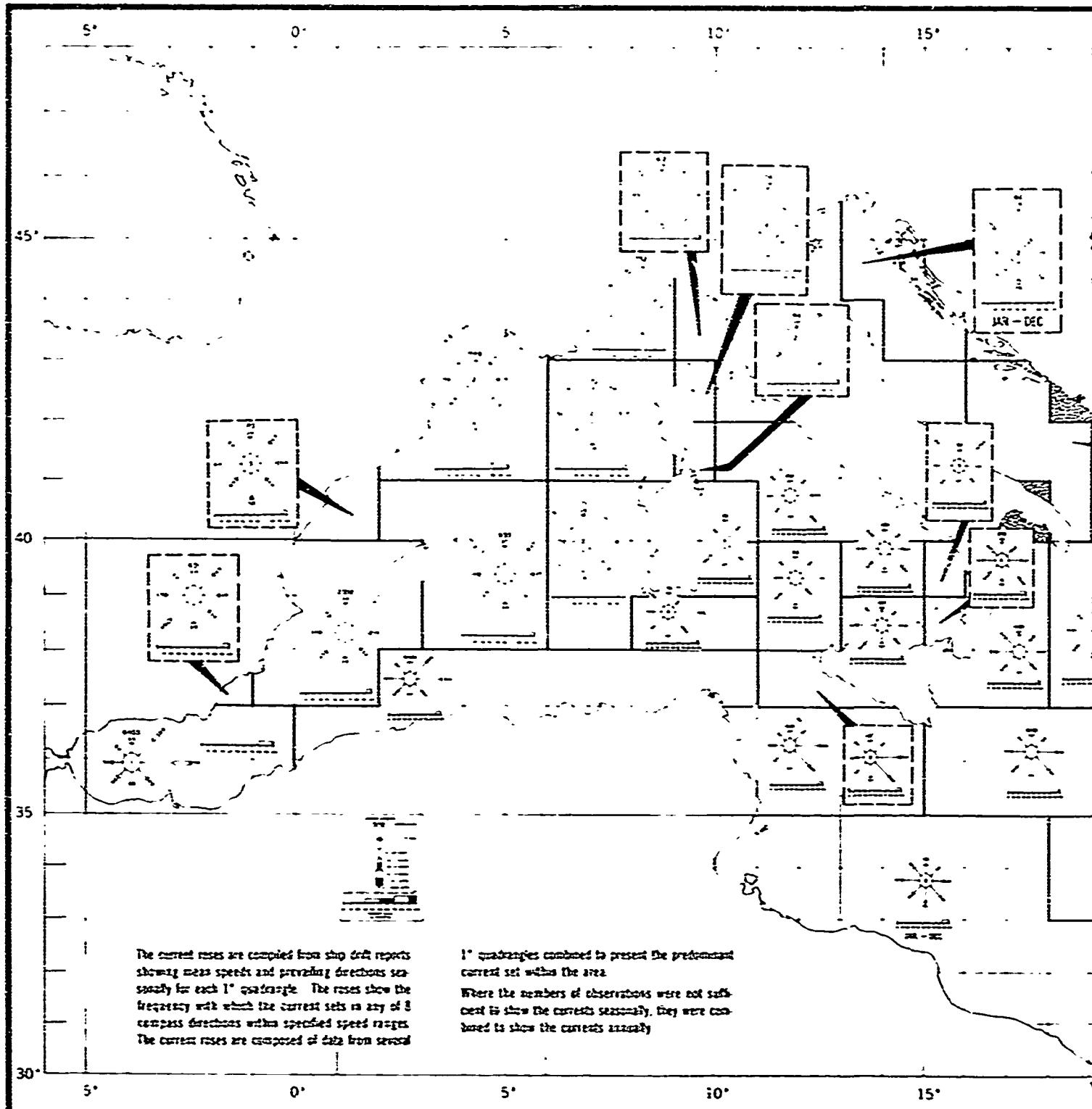
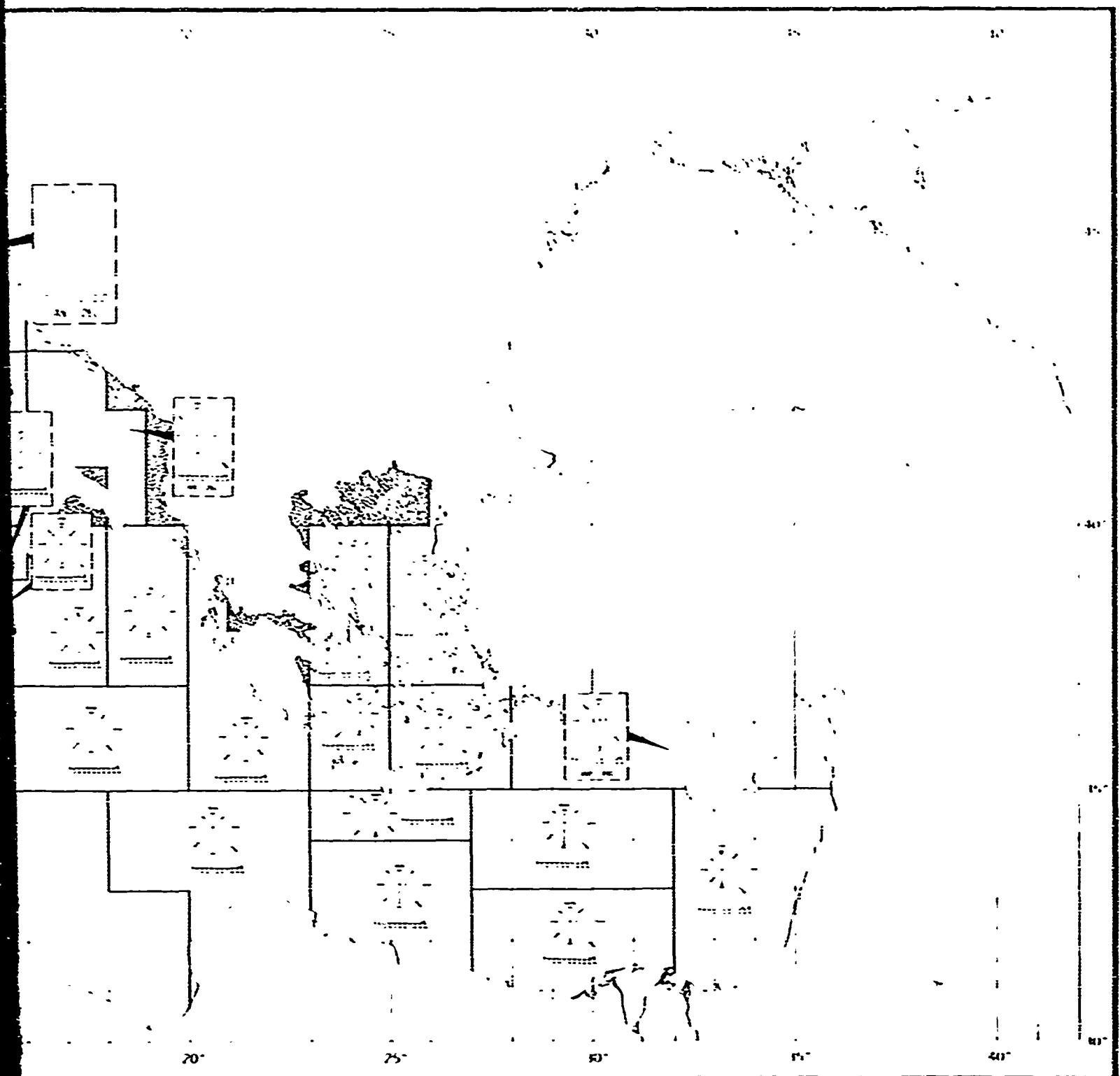


FIGURE 49. SURFACE CURRENT ROSES IN THE



IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, SUMMER

FIGURE 49. CURRENT ROSES, SUMMER

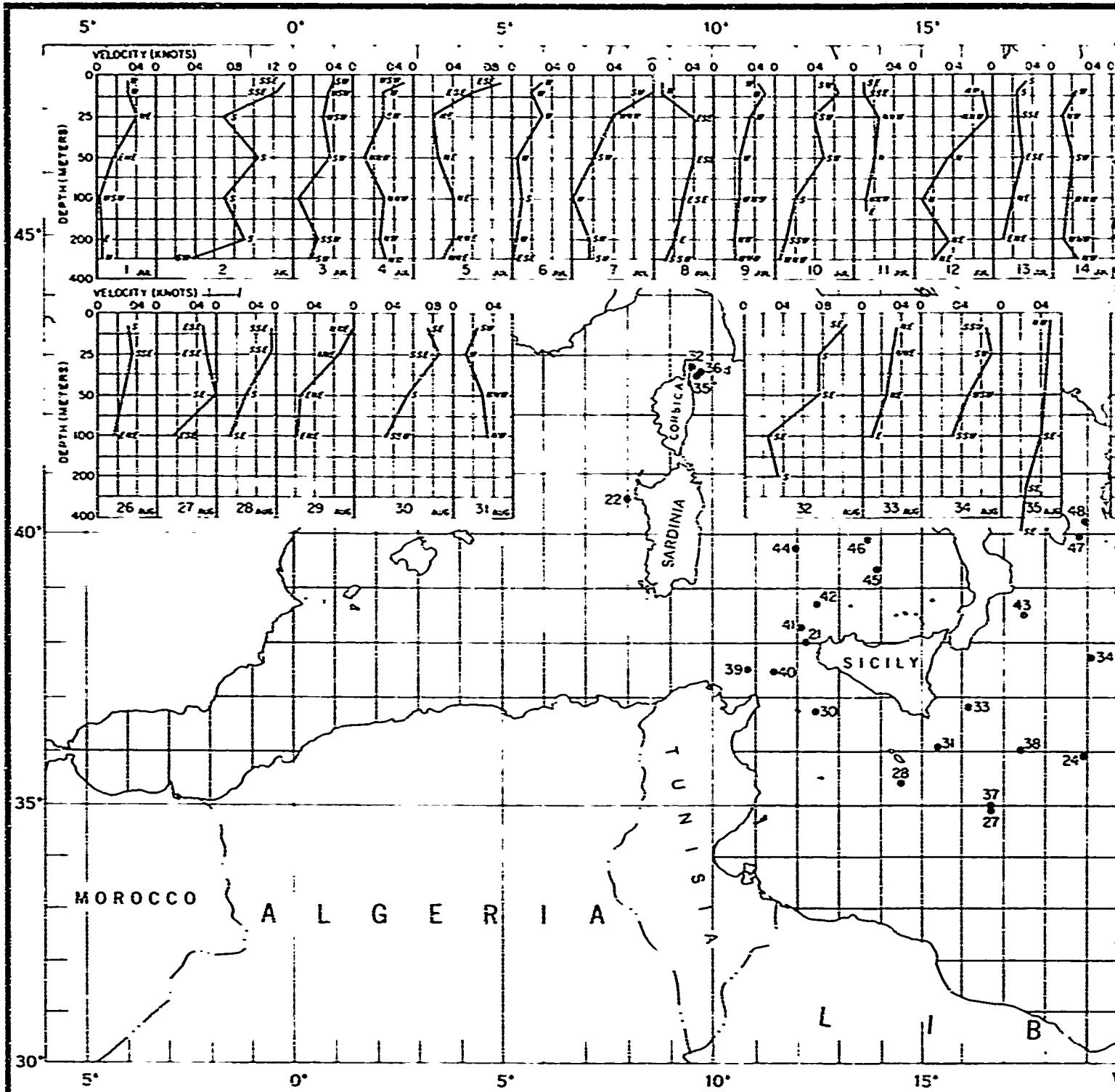


FIGURE 50. SUBSURFACE CURRENTS IN THE ME

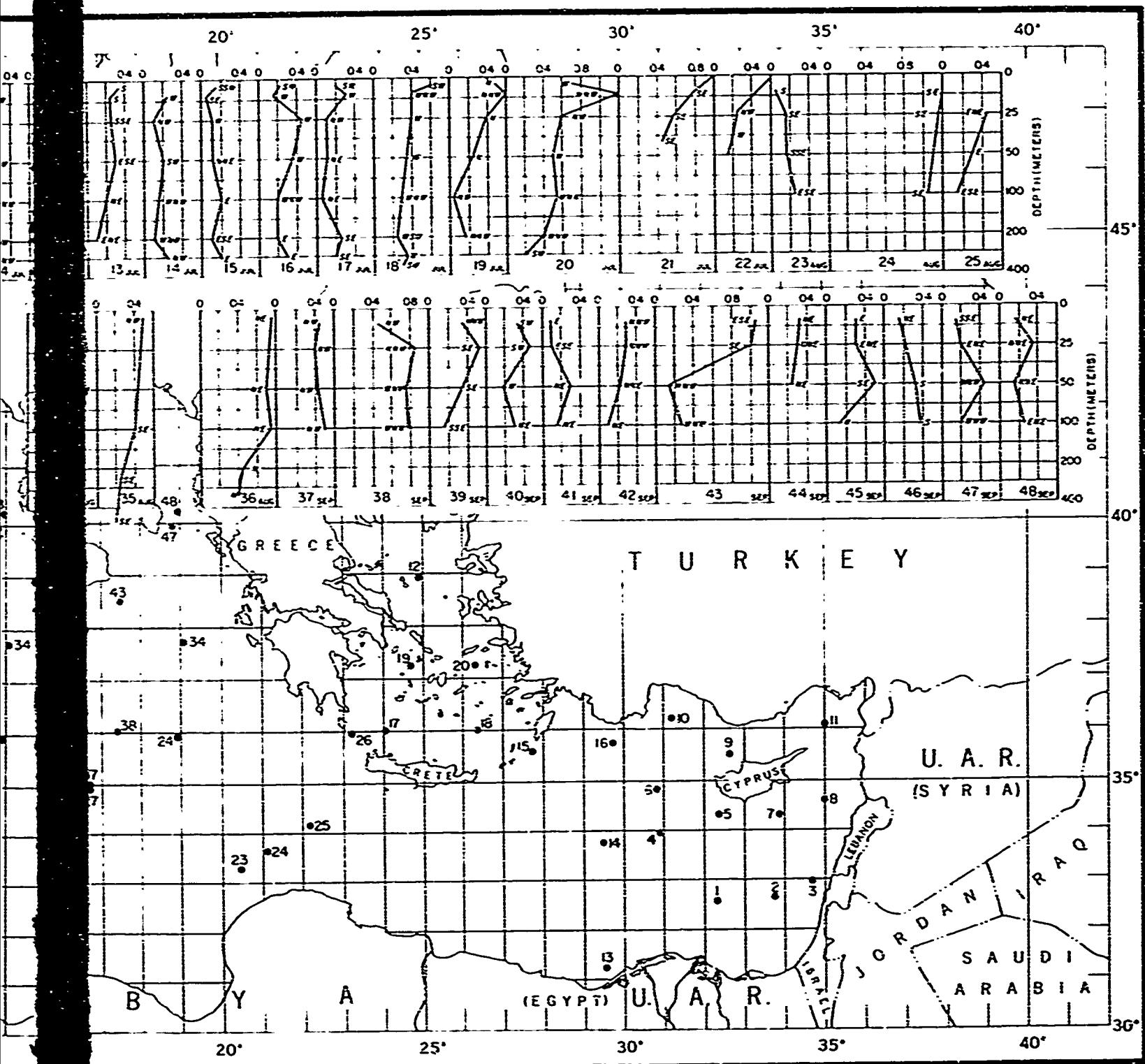


FIGURE 50. SUBSURFACE CURRENTS, SUMMER

FIGURE 50. SUBSURFACE CURRENTS, SUMMER

2

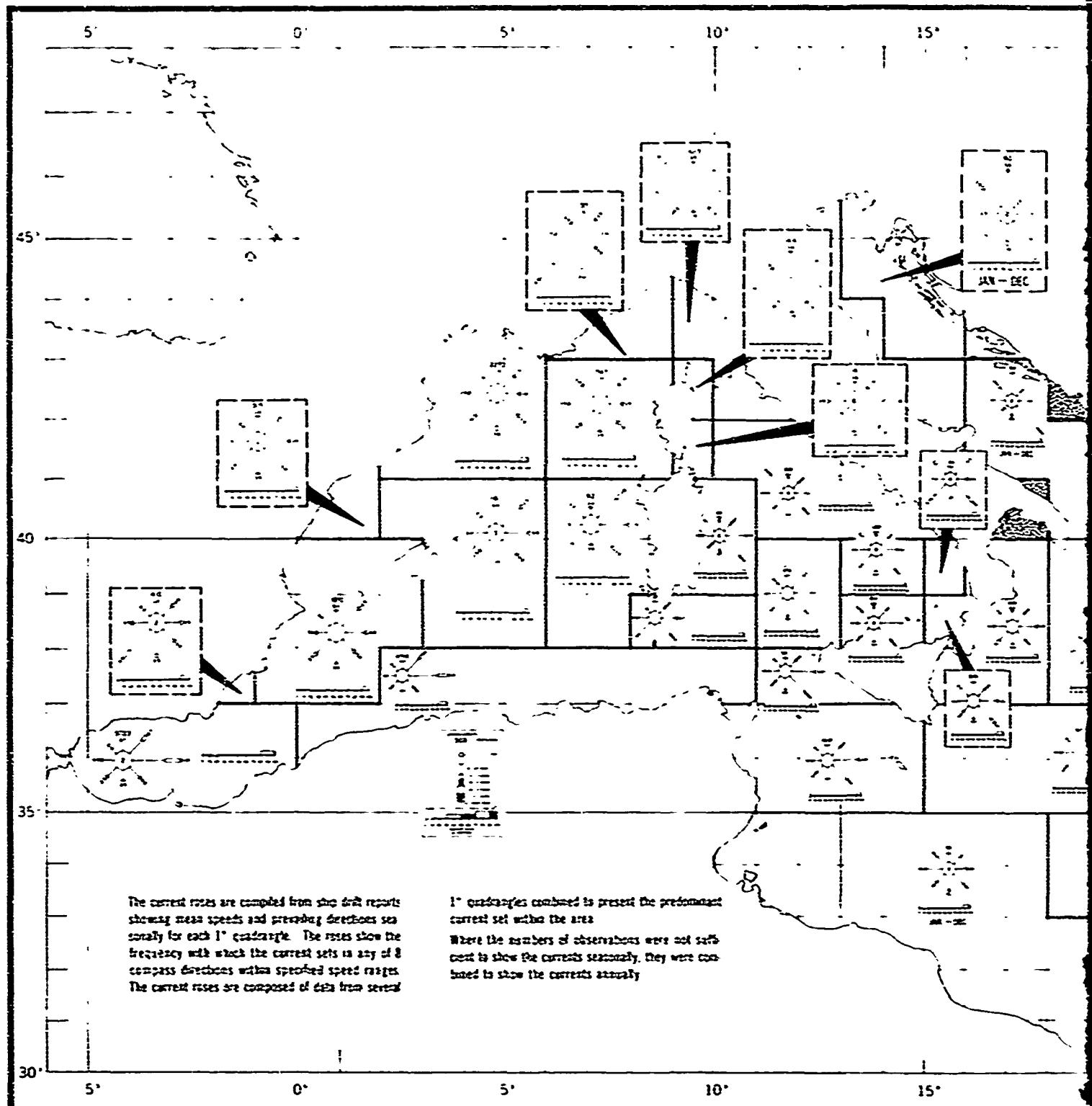


FIGURE S1. SURFACE CURRENT ROSES IN

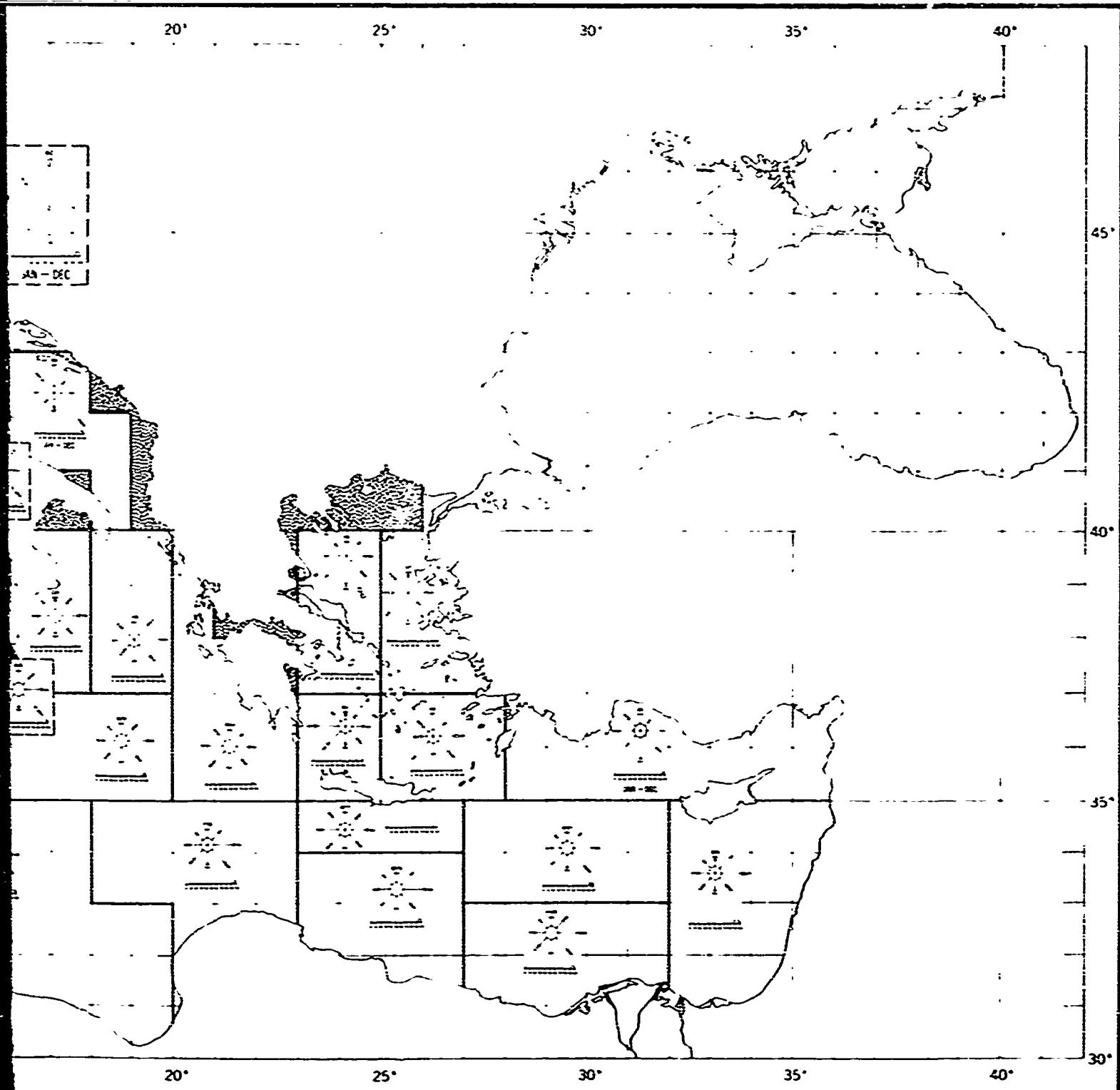


FIGURE 51. SURFACE CURRENTS, FALL

2

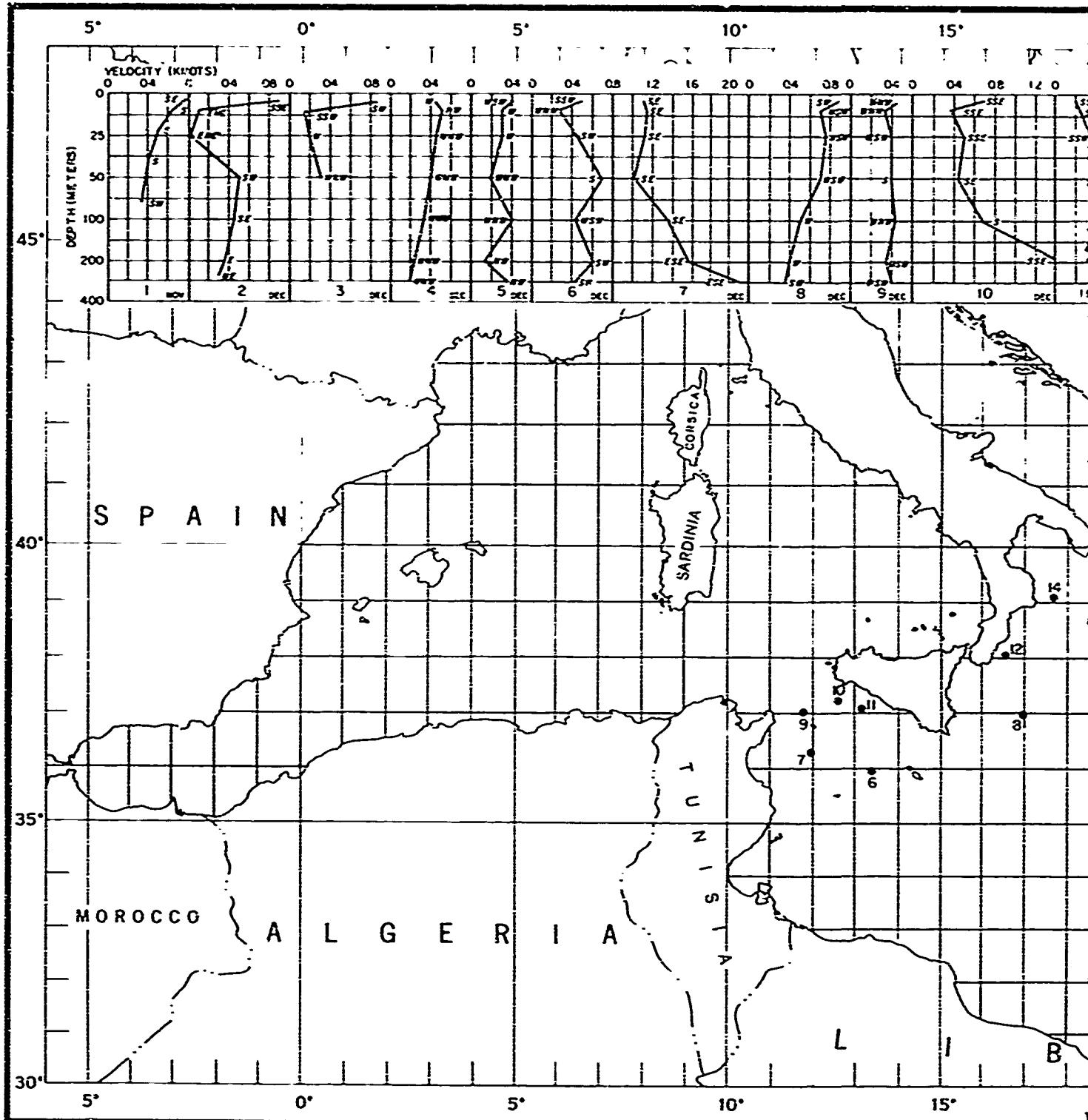


FIGURE 52. SUBSURFACE CURRENTS IN

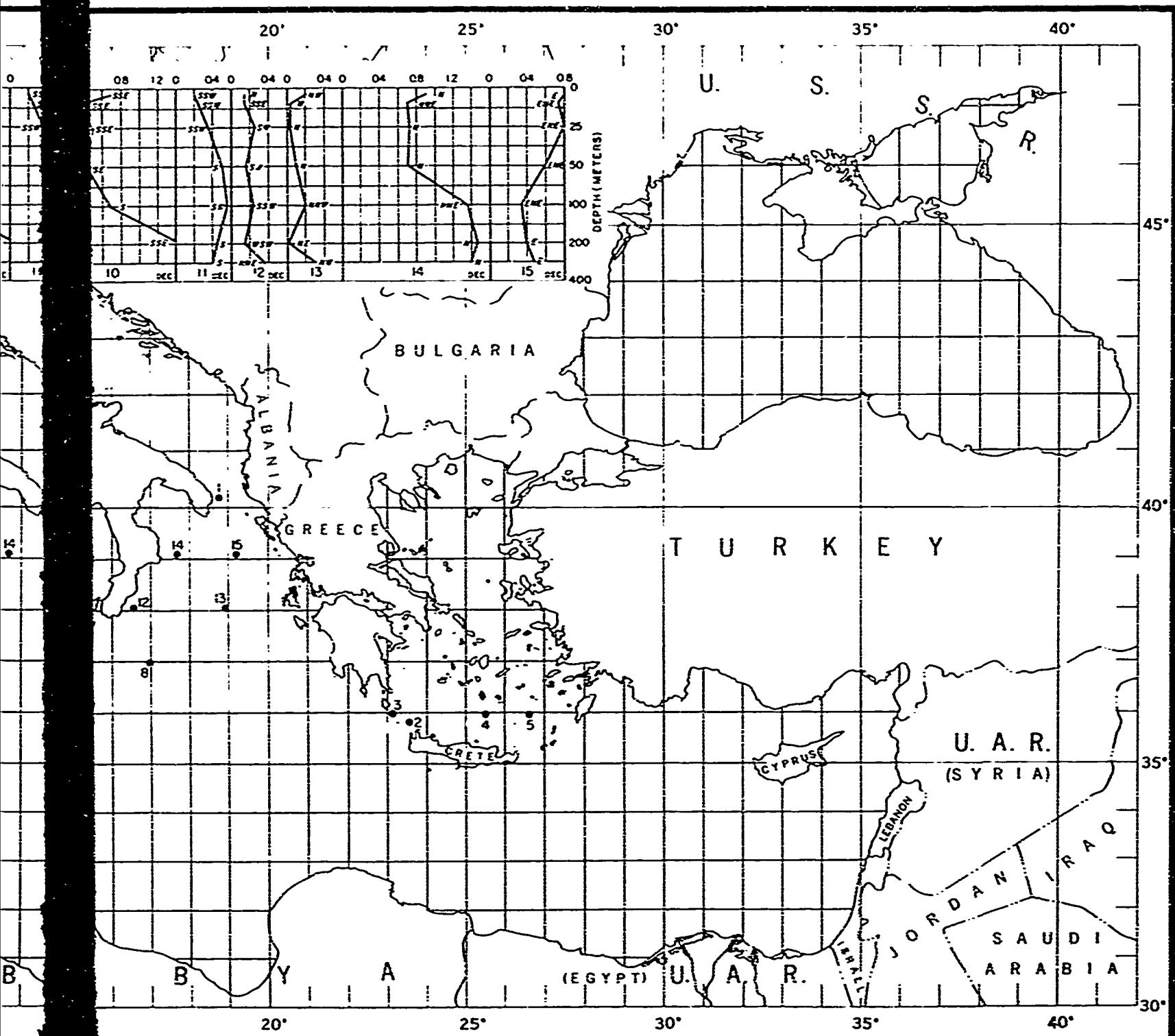


FIGURE 52. SUBSURFACE CURRENTS IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, FALL

FIGURE 52. SUBSURFACE CURRENTS, FALL

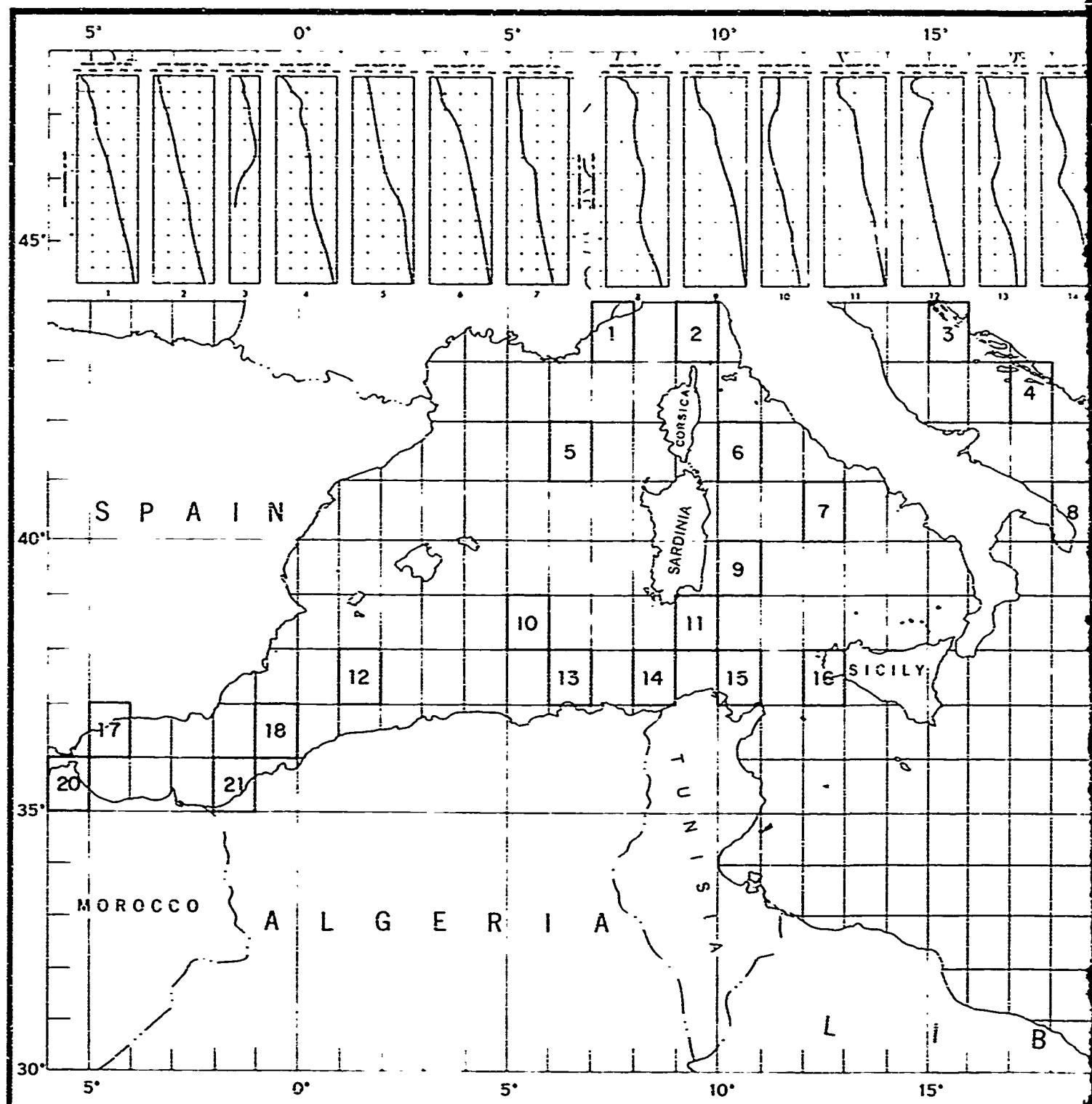


FIGURE 53. MEAN SOUND VELOCITY PROFILE

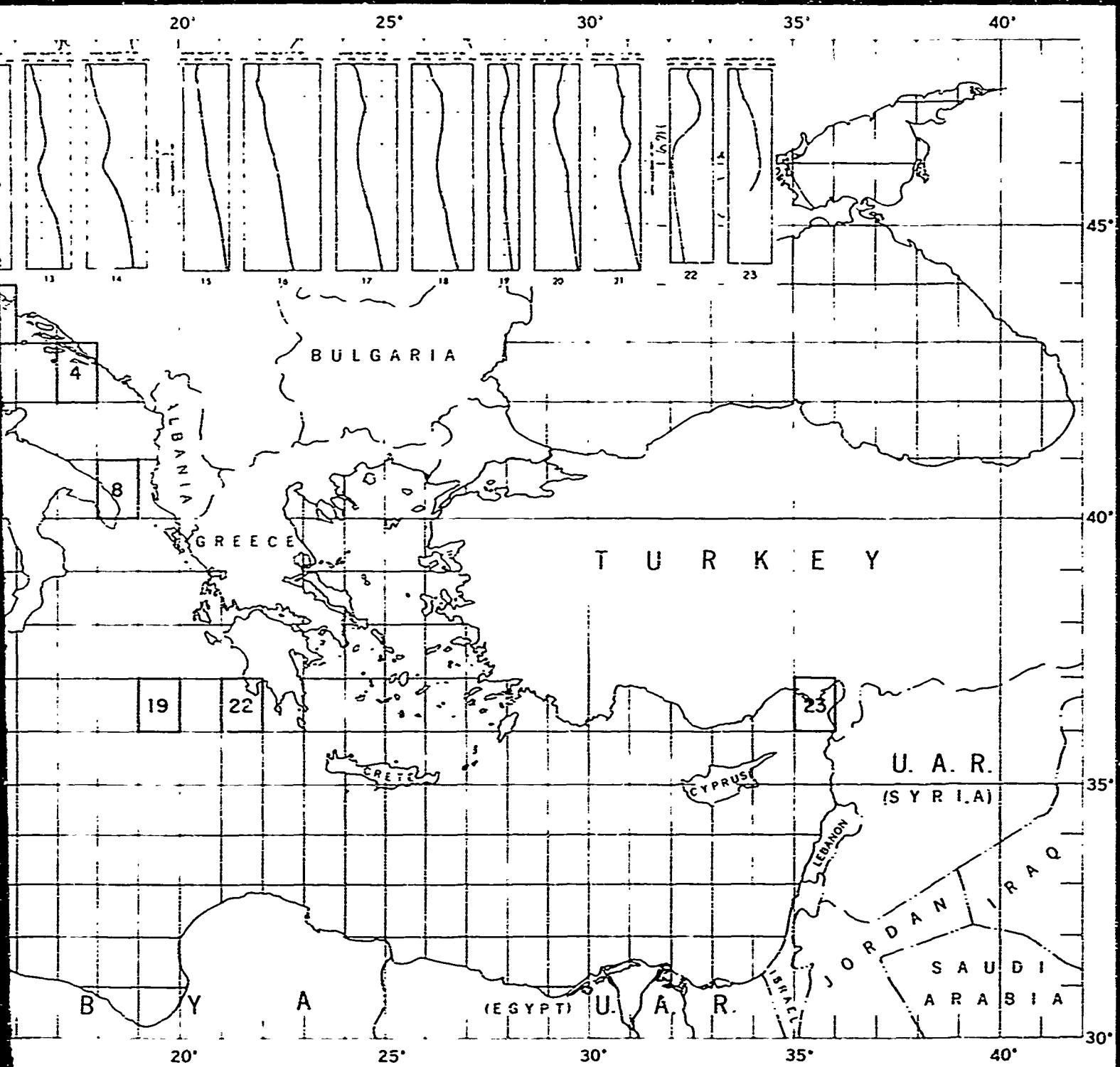


FIGURE 53. SOUND VELOCITY PROFILES IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, WINTER

FIGURE 53. SOUND VELOCITY PROFILES, WINTER

2

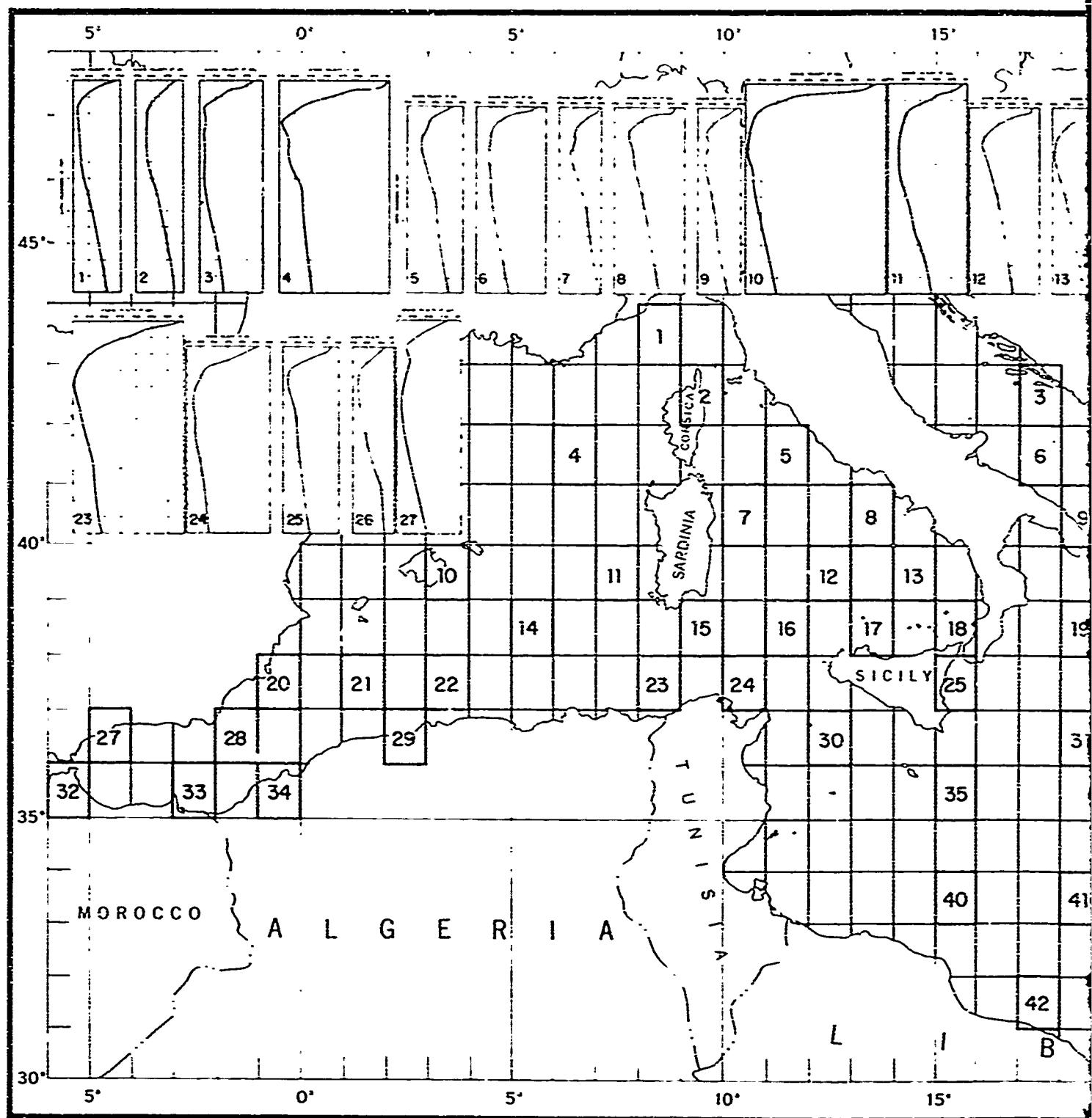
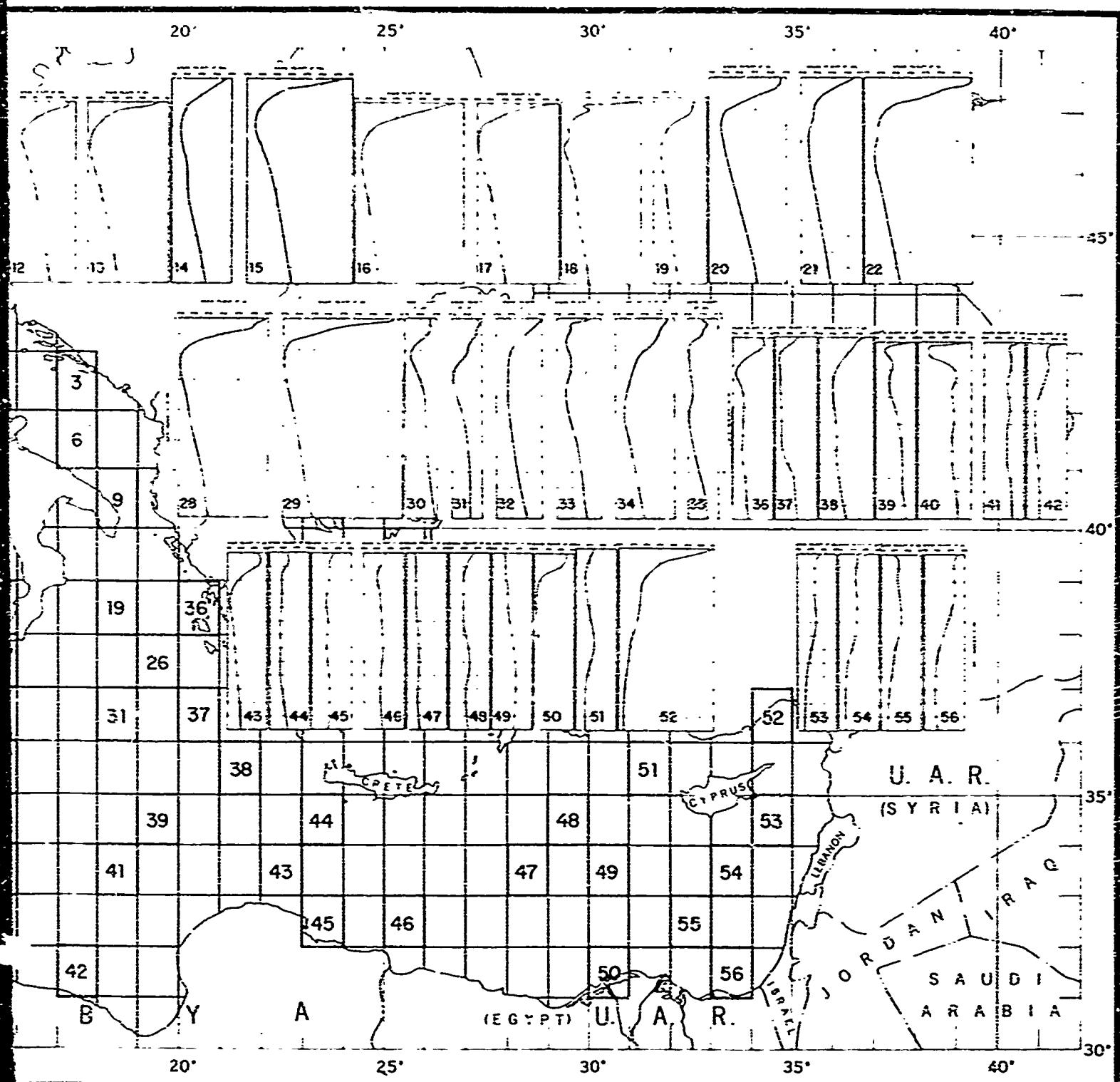


FIGURE S4. MEAN SOUND VELOCITY PROFILE



LOCITY PROFILES IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, SPRING

FIGURE 54. SOUND VELOCITY PROFILES, SPRING

2

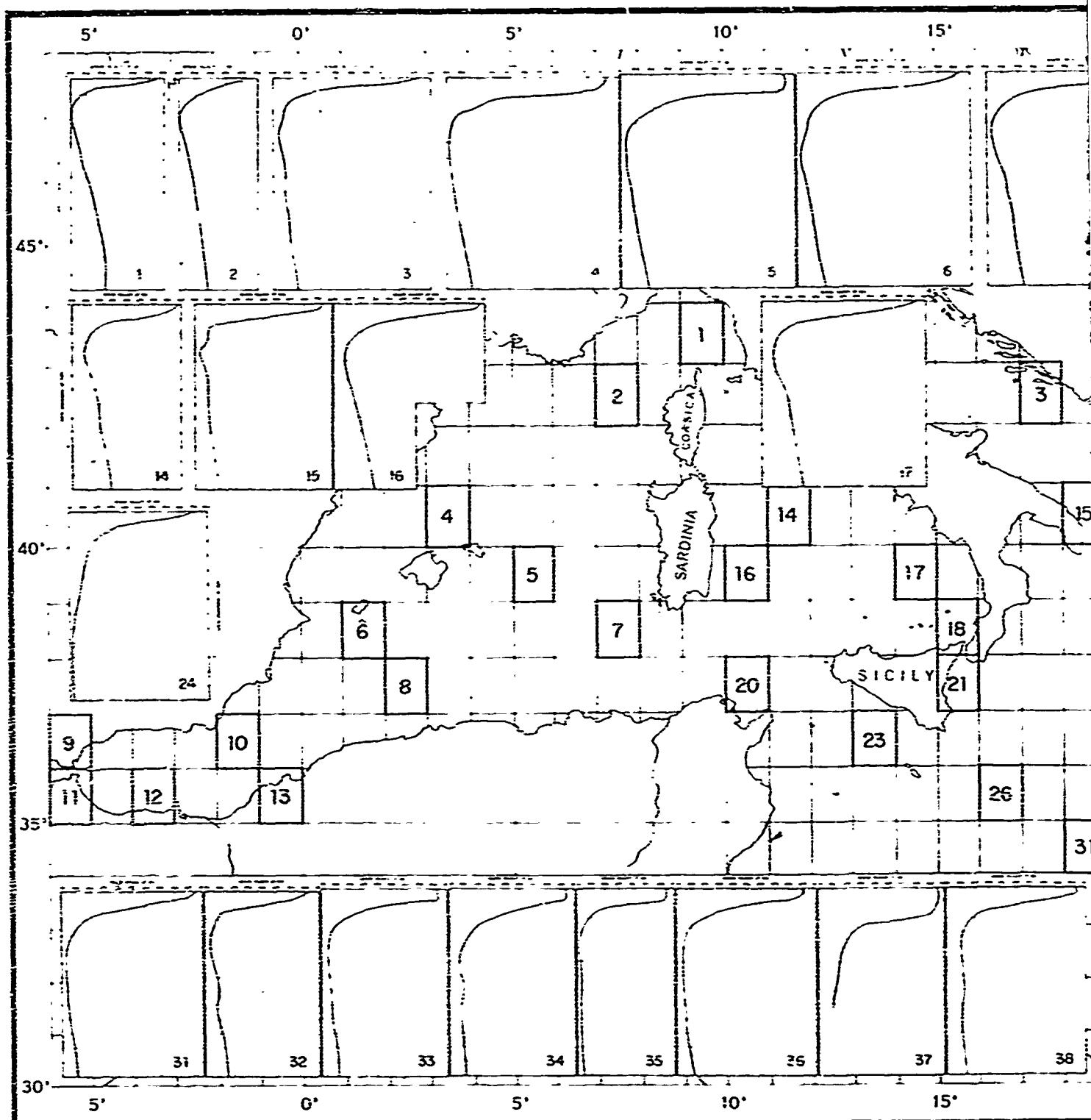


FIGURE 55. MEAN SOUND VELOCITY PROFILE

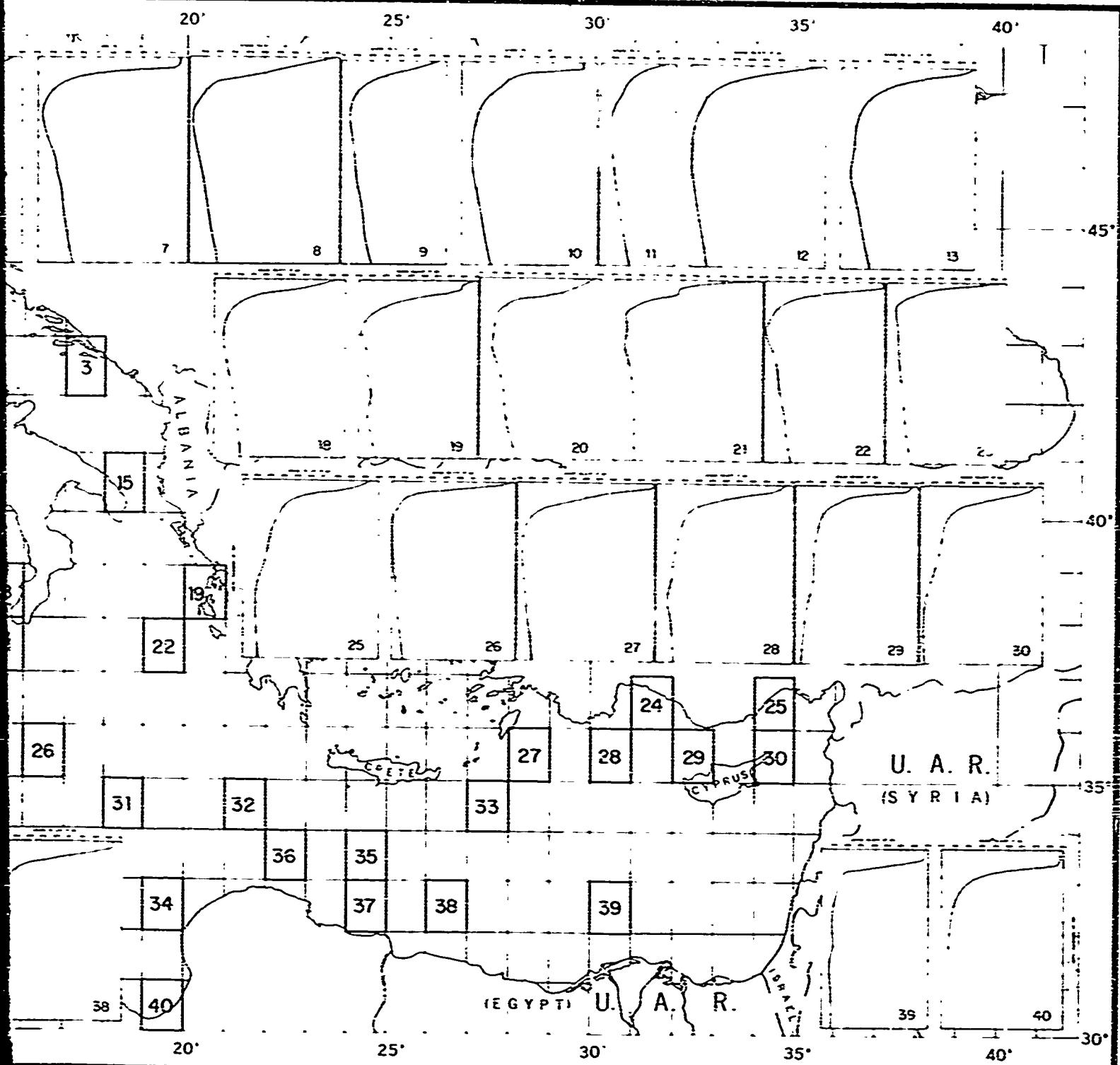


FIGURE 55. SOUND VELOCITY PROFILES IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, SUMMER

FIGURE 55. SOUND VELOCITY PROFILES, SUMMER

2

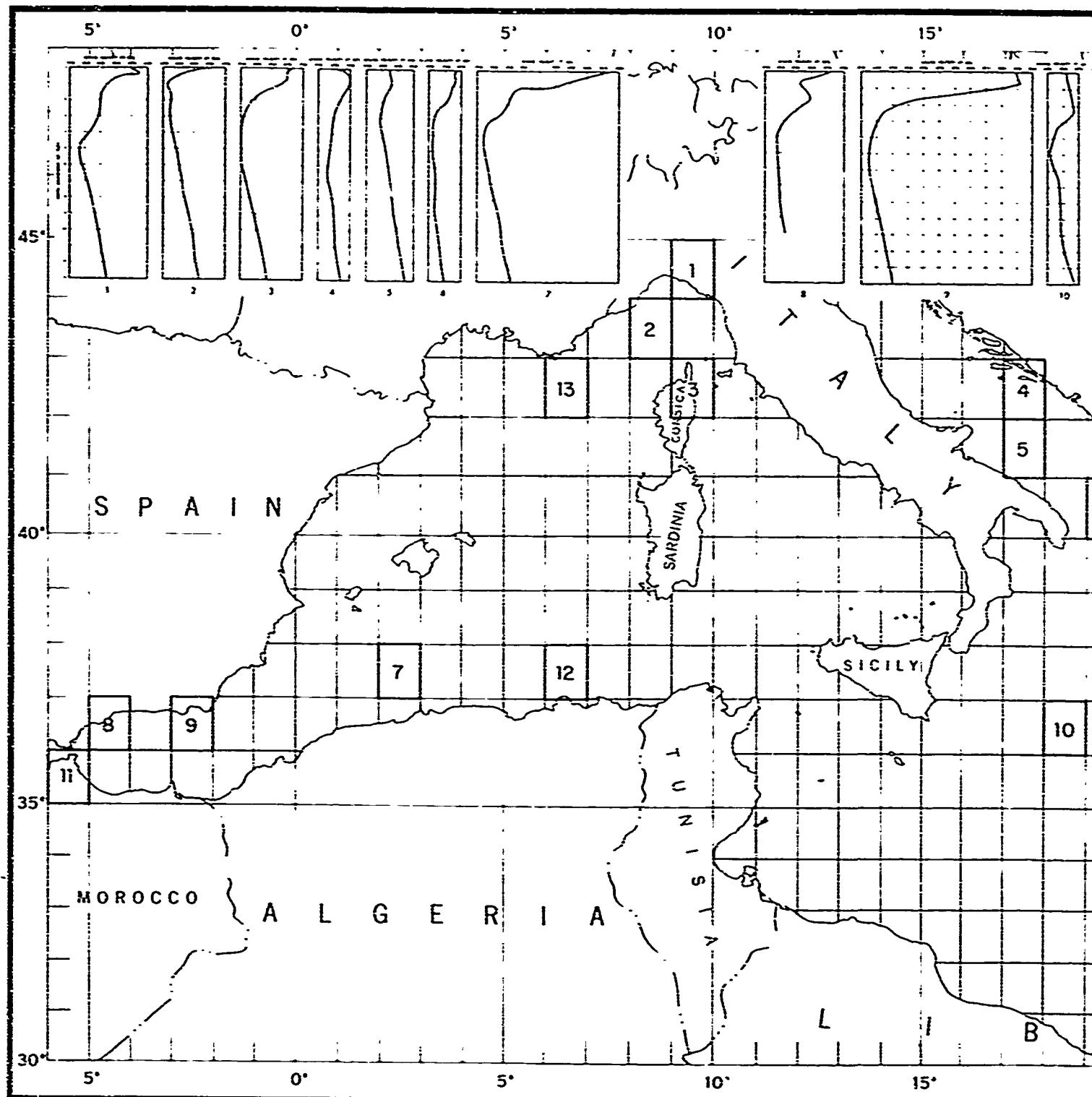
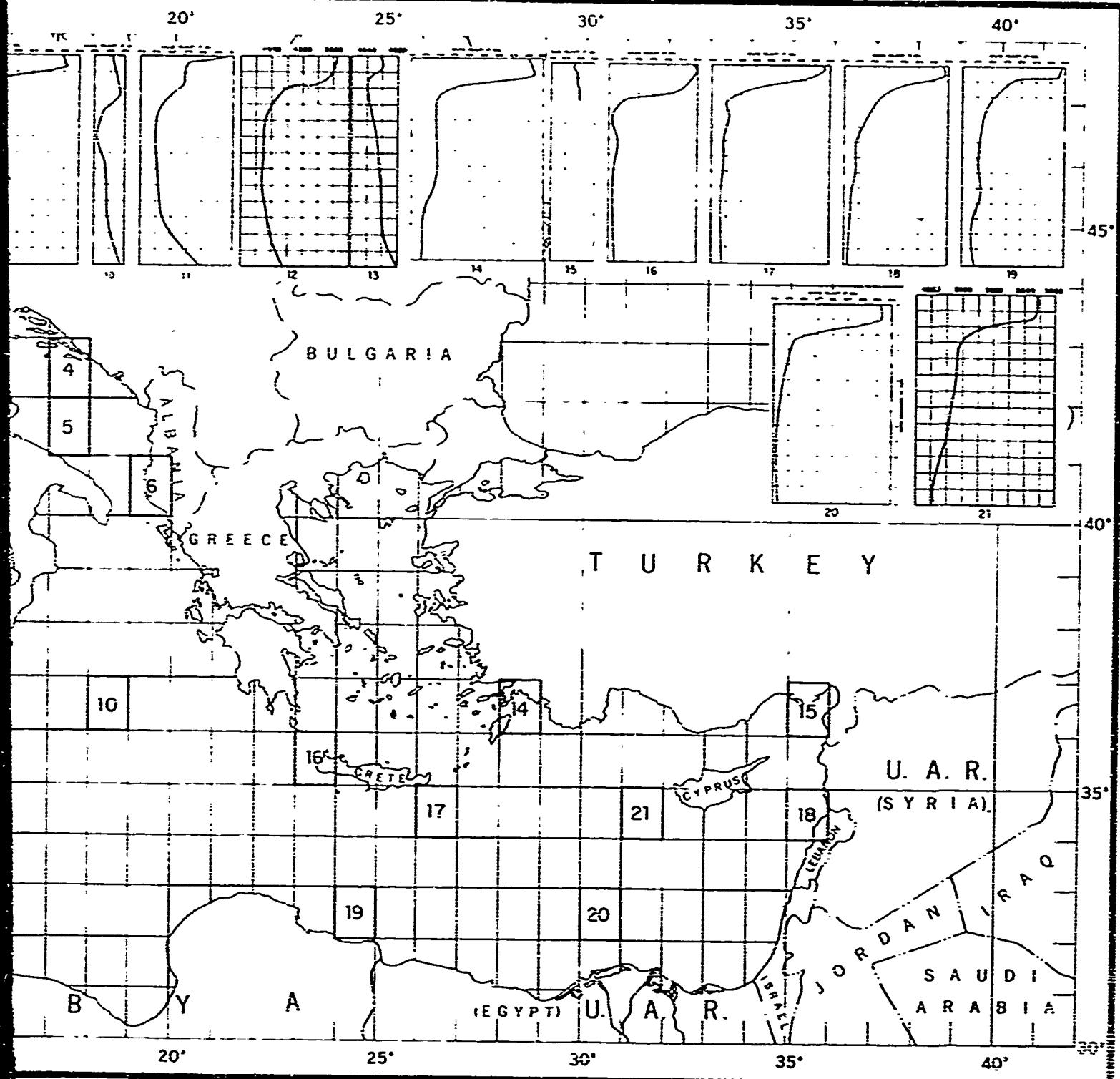


FIGURE 56. MEAN SOUND VELOCITY PROFILES



OCITY PROFILES IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, FALL

FIGURE 53. SOUND VELOCITY PROFILES, FALL

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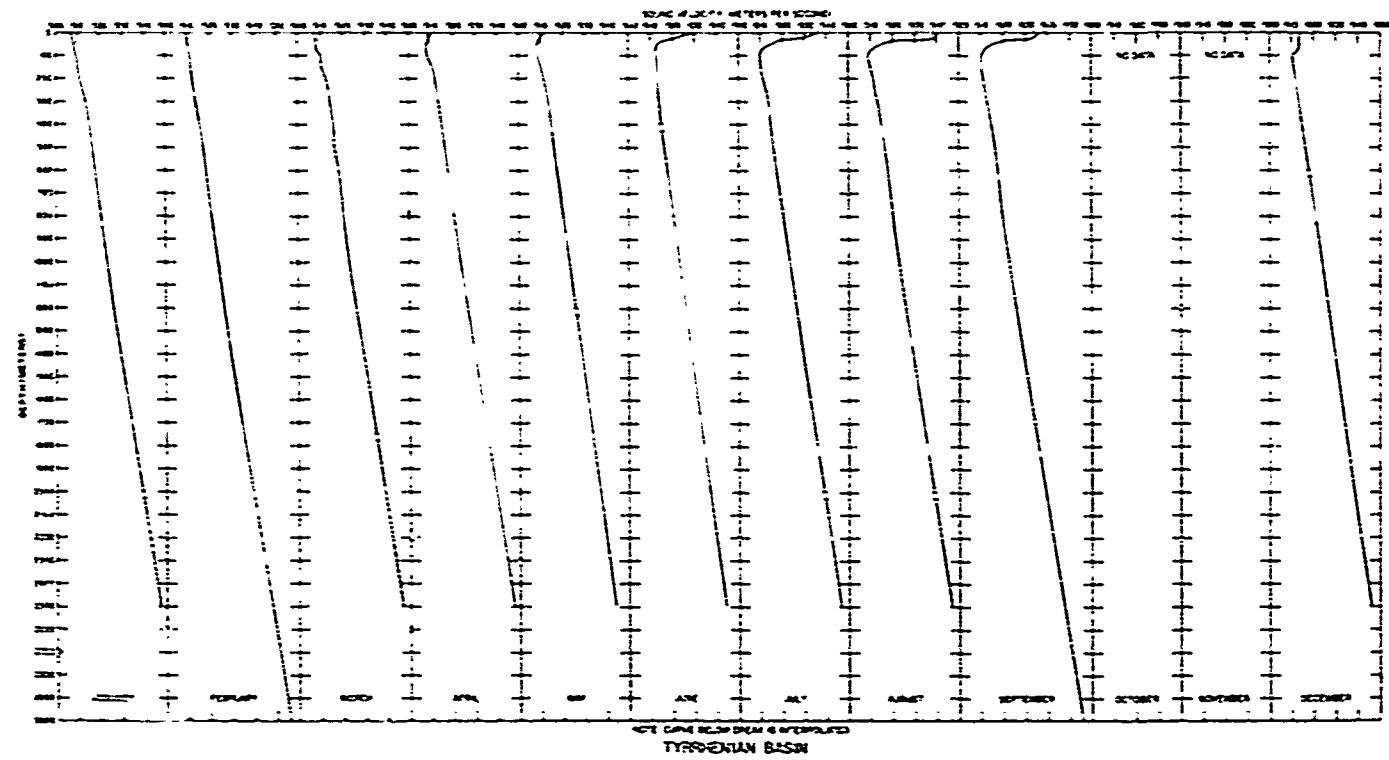
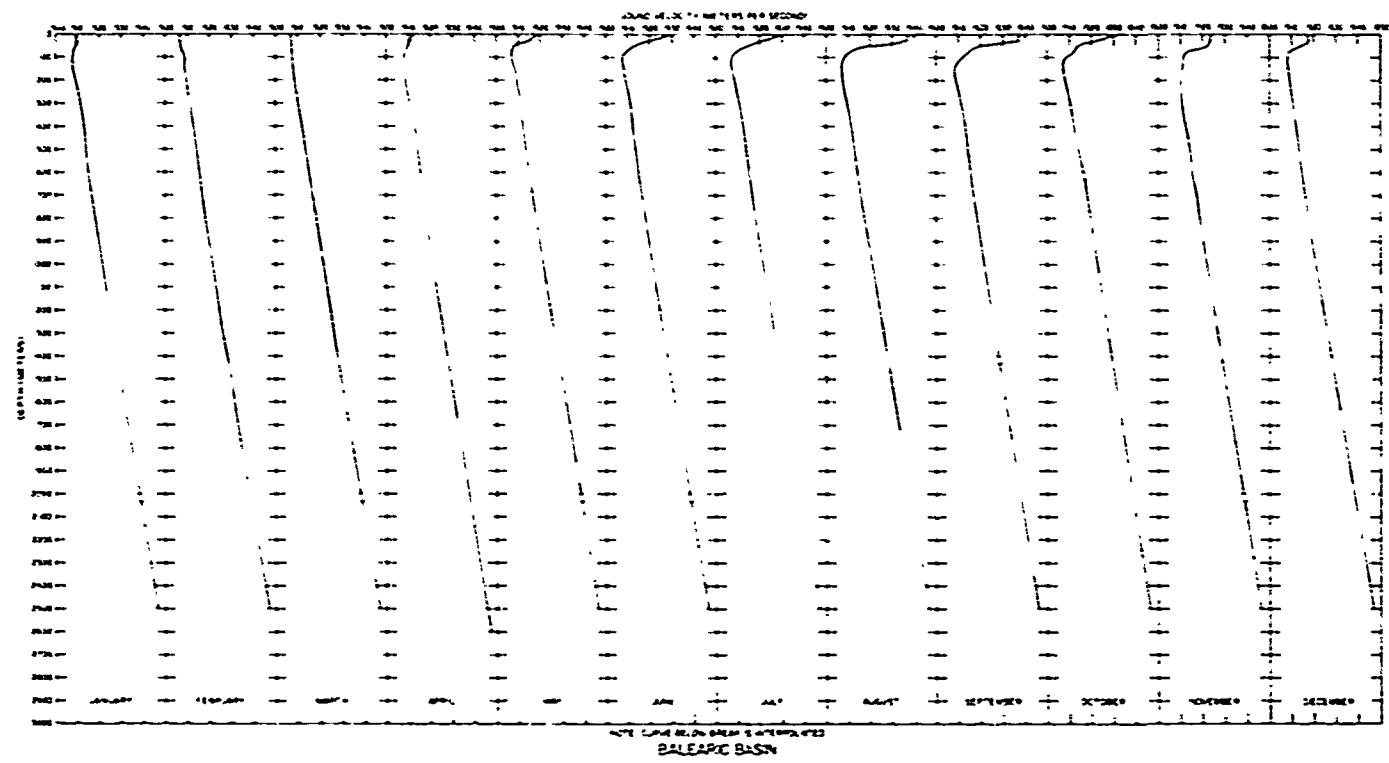


FIGURE 57. TYPICAL MONTHLY SOUND VELOCITY PROFILES

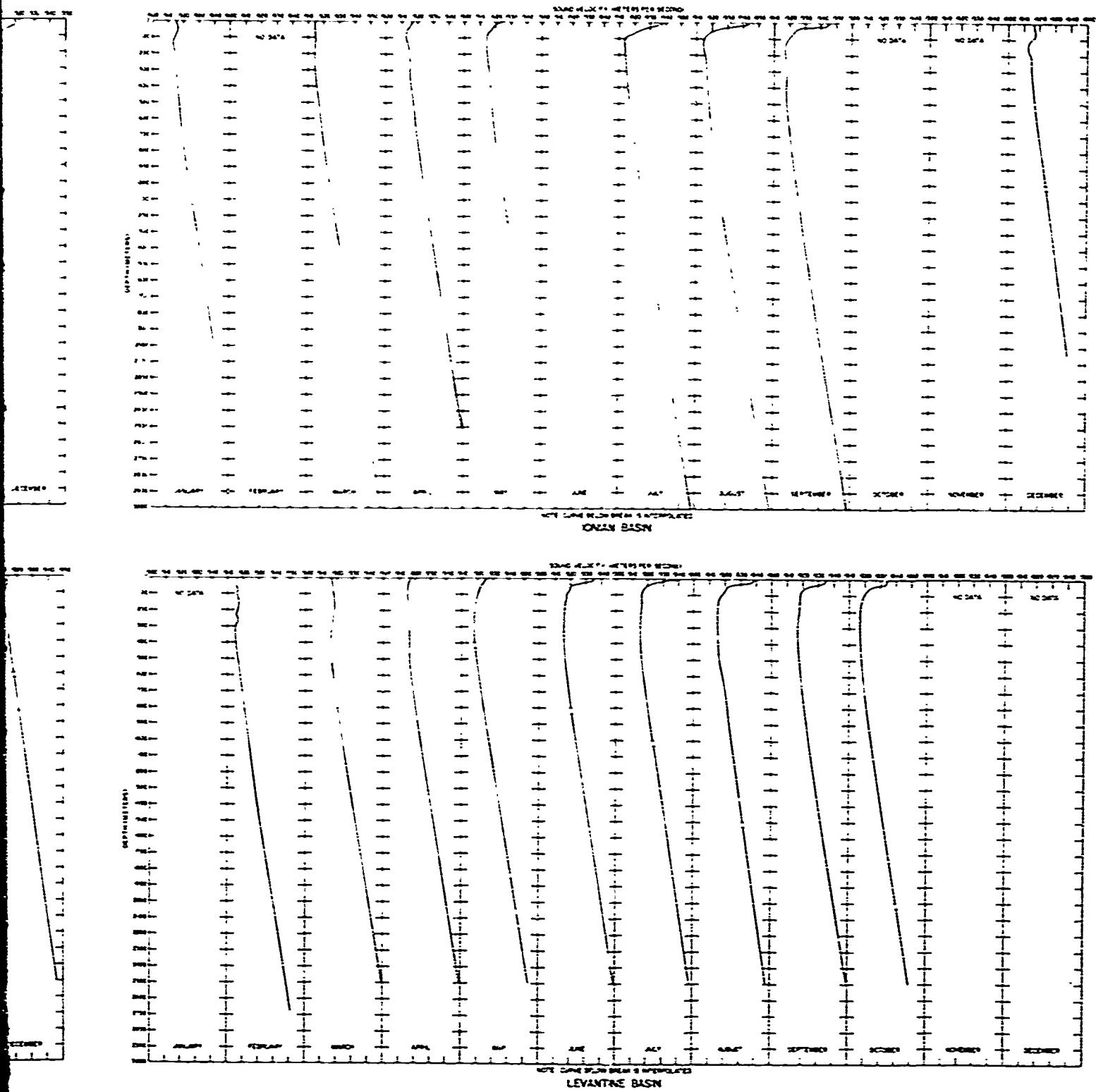


FIGURE 57. SOUND VELOCITY PROFILES FOR MAJOR BASINS

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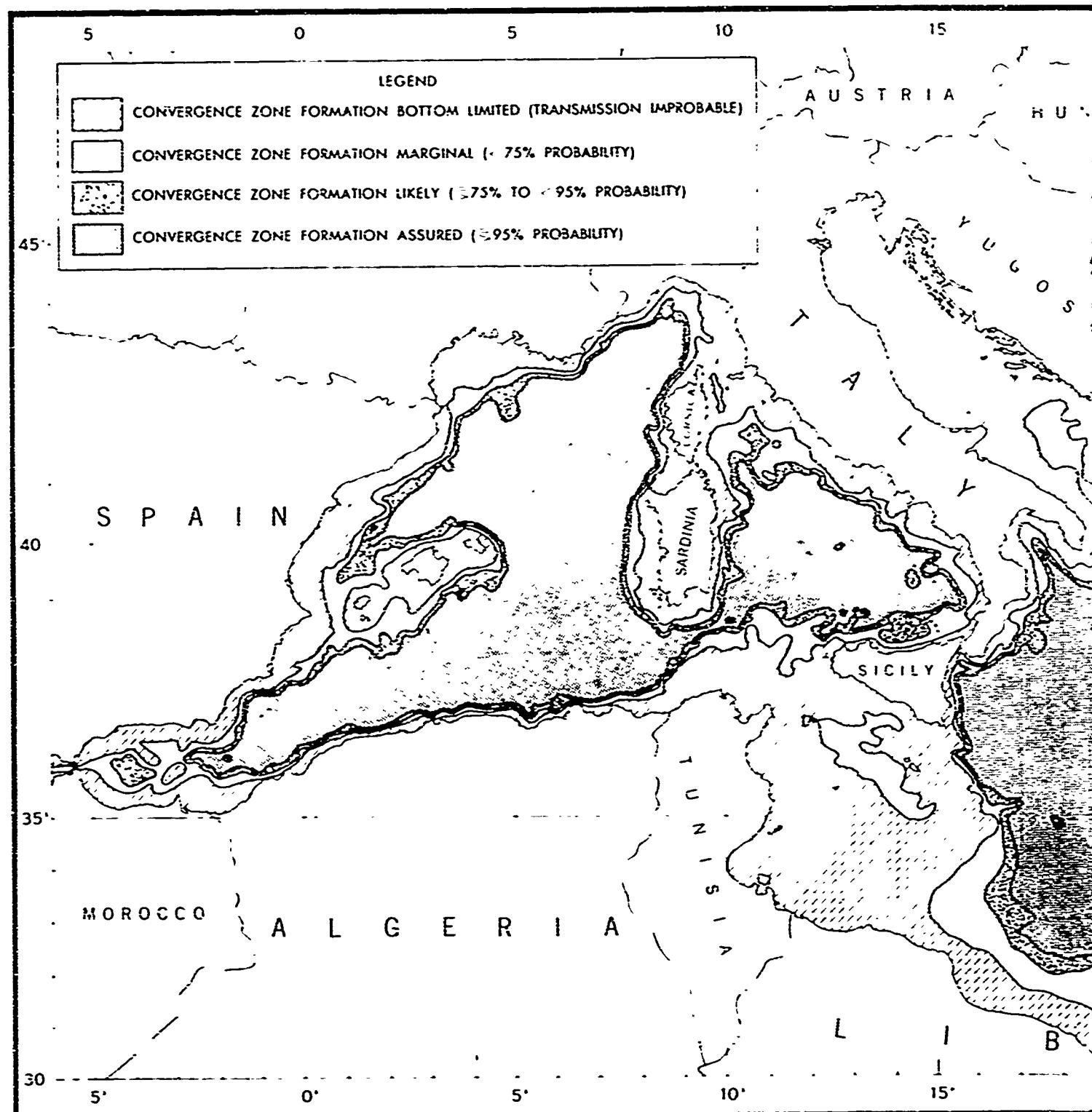
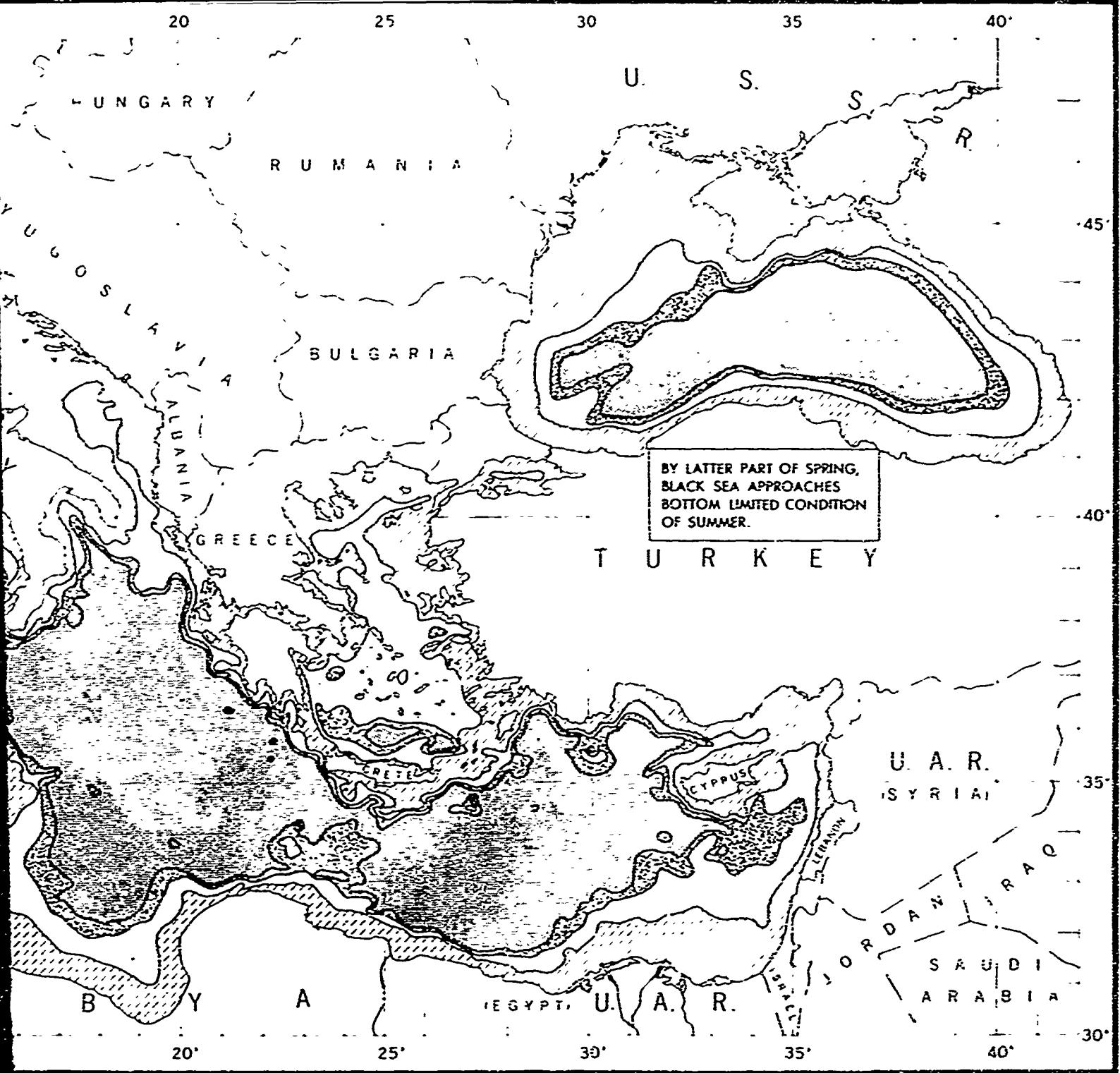


FIGURE 58. PERCENT PROBABILITY OF CONVERGENCE ZONE FORMATION



## ONE FORMATION IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, SPRING

FIGURE 58. CONVERGENCE ZONE FORMATION, SPRING

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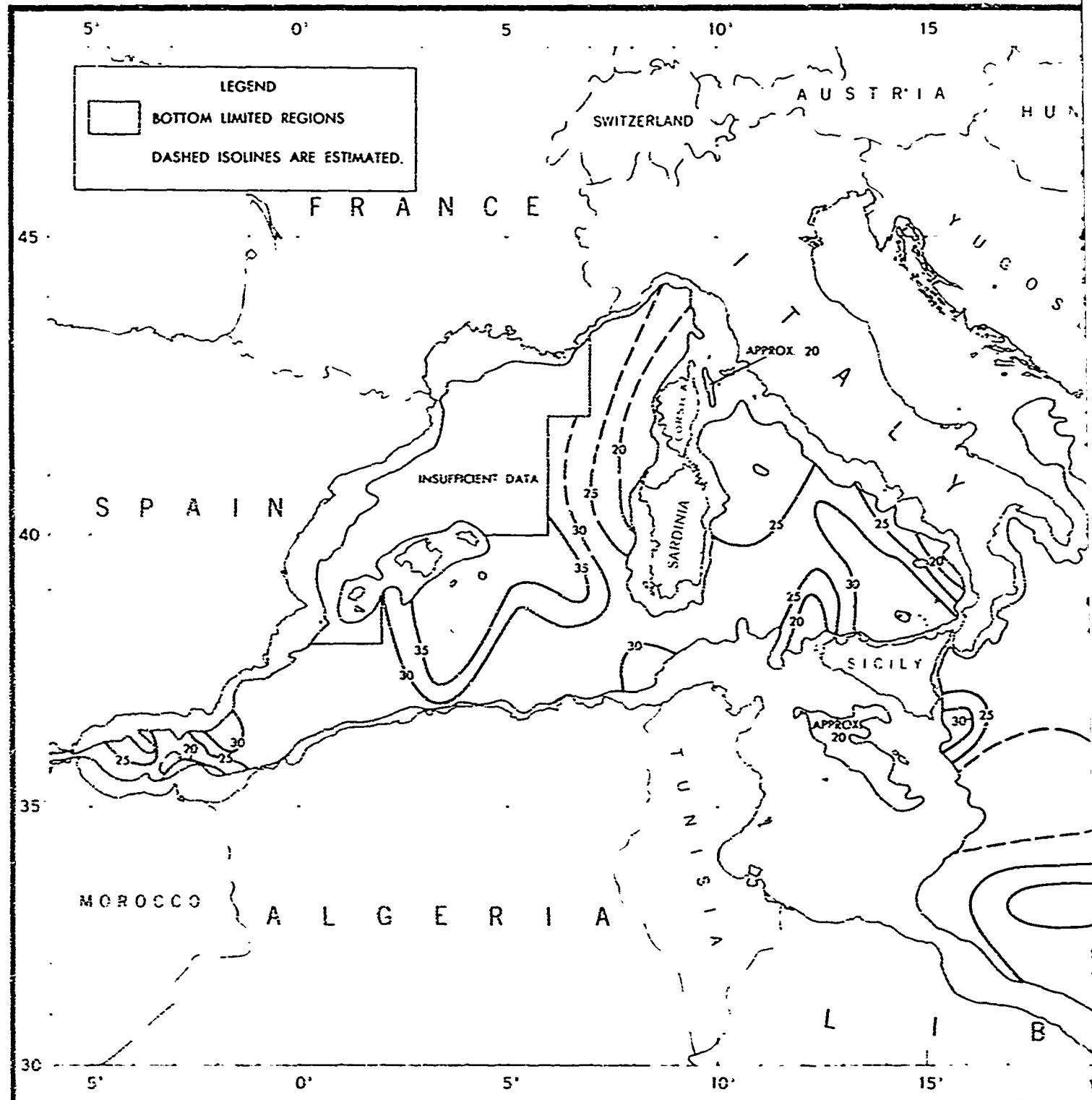
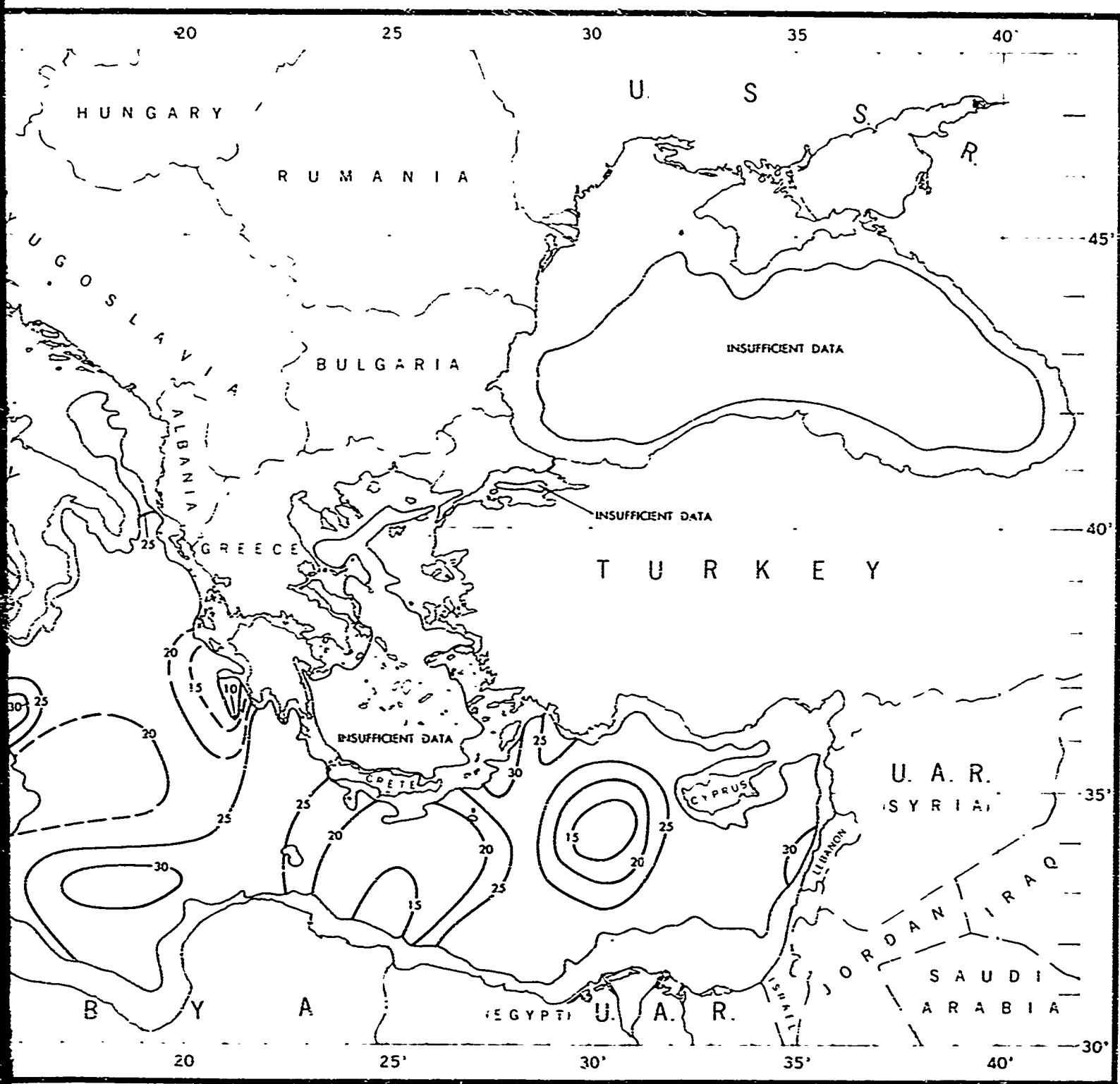


FIGURE 59. CONVERGENCE ZONE RANGE (KILOYARDS) IN THE



THE (LOYARDS) IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, SPRING

FIGURE 59. CONVERGENCE ZONE RANGE, SPRING CONFIDENTIAL

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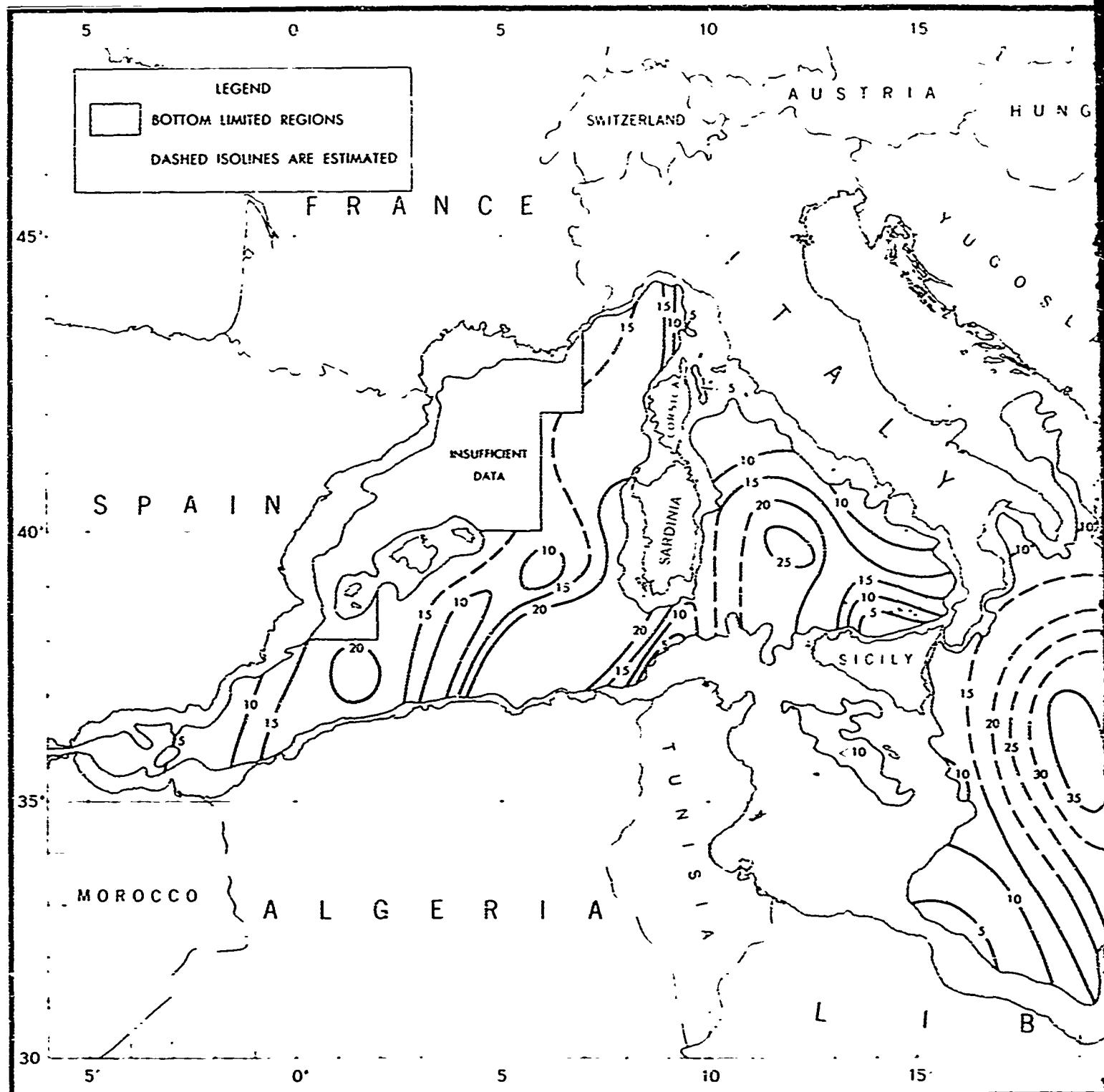
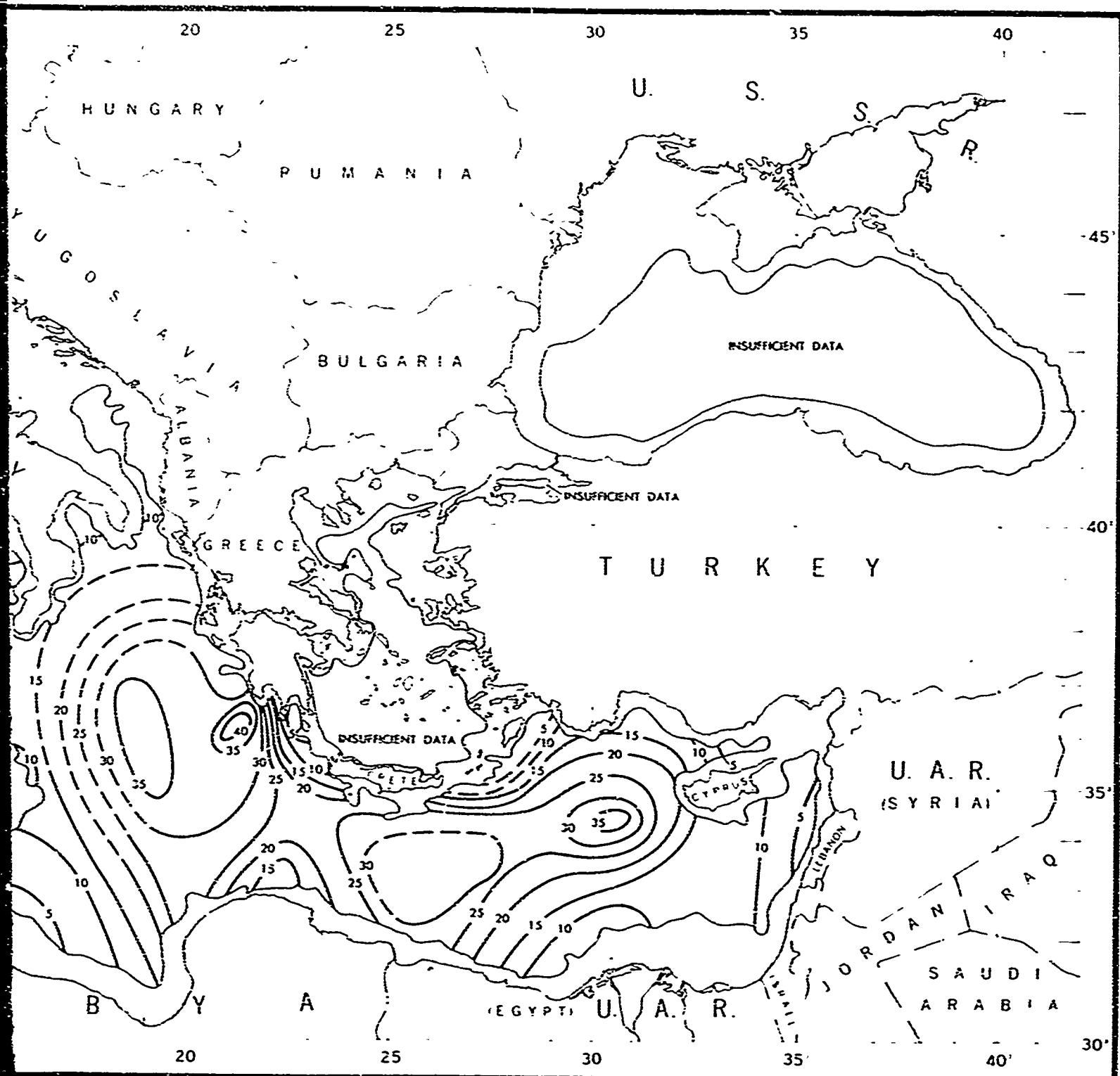


FIGURE 60. SURFACE INSONIFICATION INTERVAL (KILOYARDS) IN THE M



KILOYARDS) IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, SPRING

FIGURE 60. SURFACE INSONIFICATION INTERVAL, SPRING

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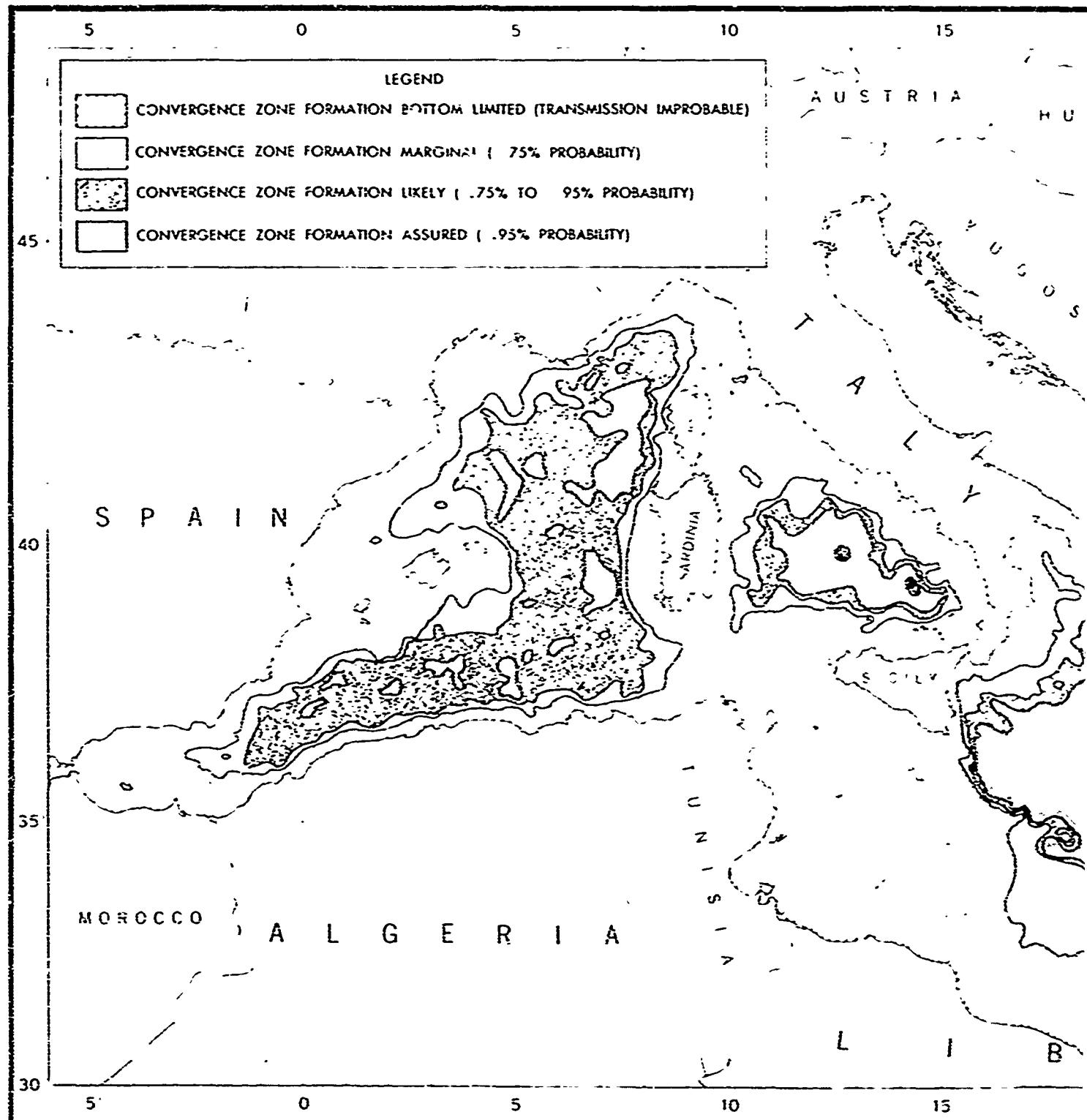
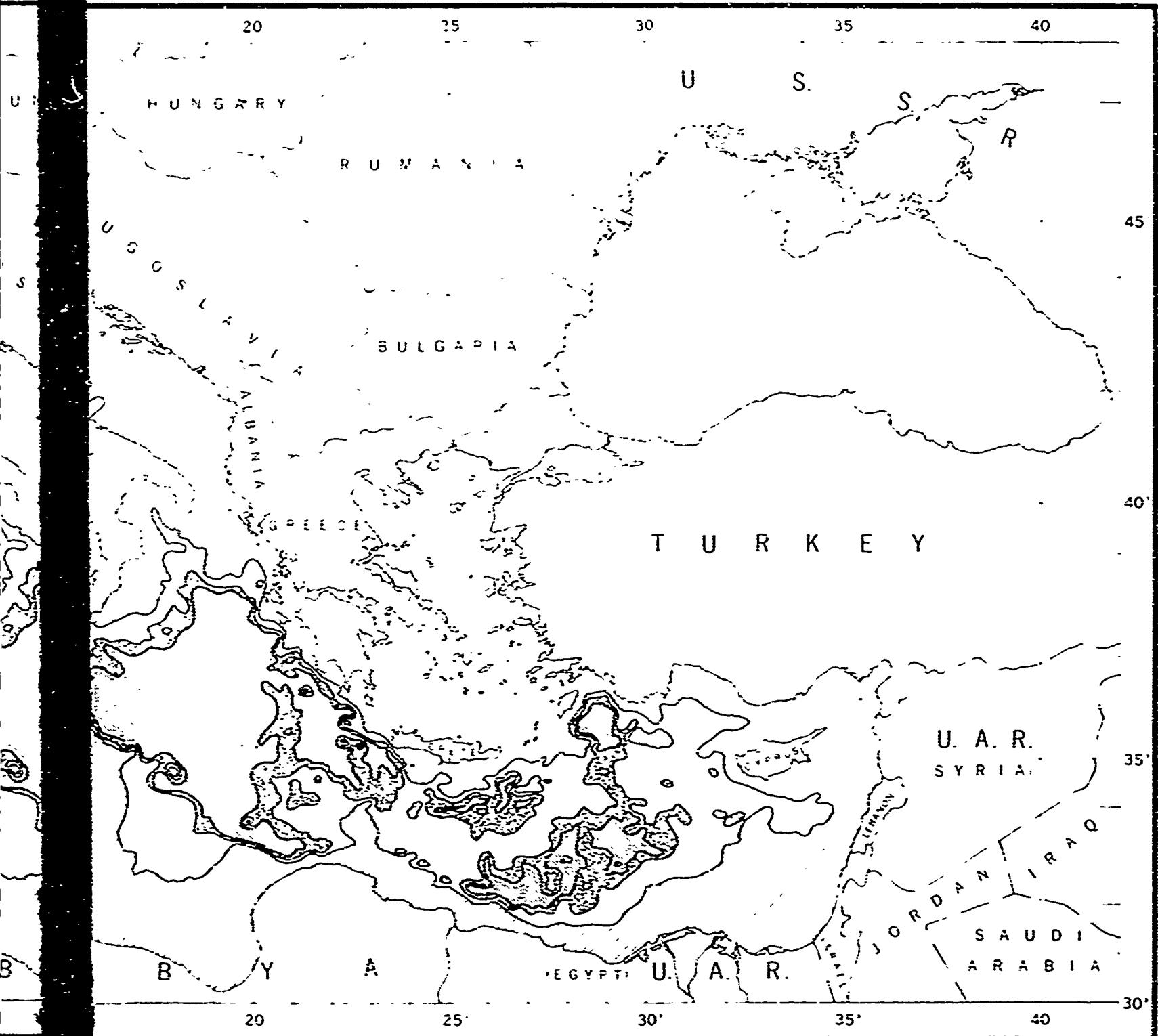


FIGURE 61. PERCENT PROBABILITY OF CONVERGENCE ZONE FORMATION



FORMATION IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, SUMMER

FIGURE 61. CONVERGENCE ZONE FORMATION, SUMMER

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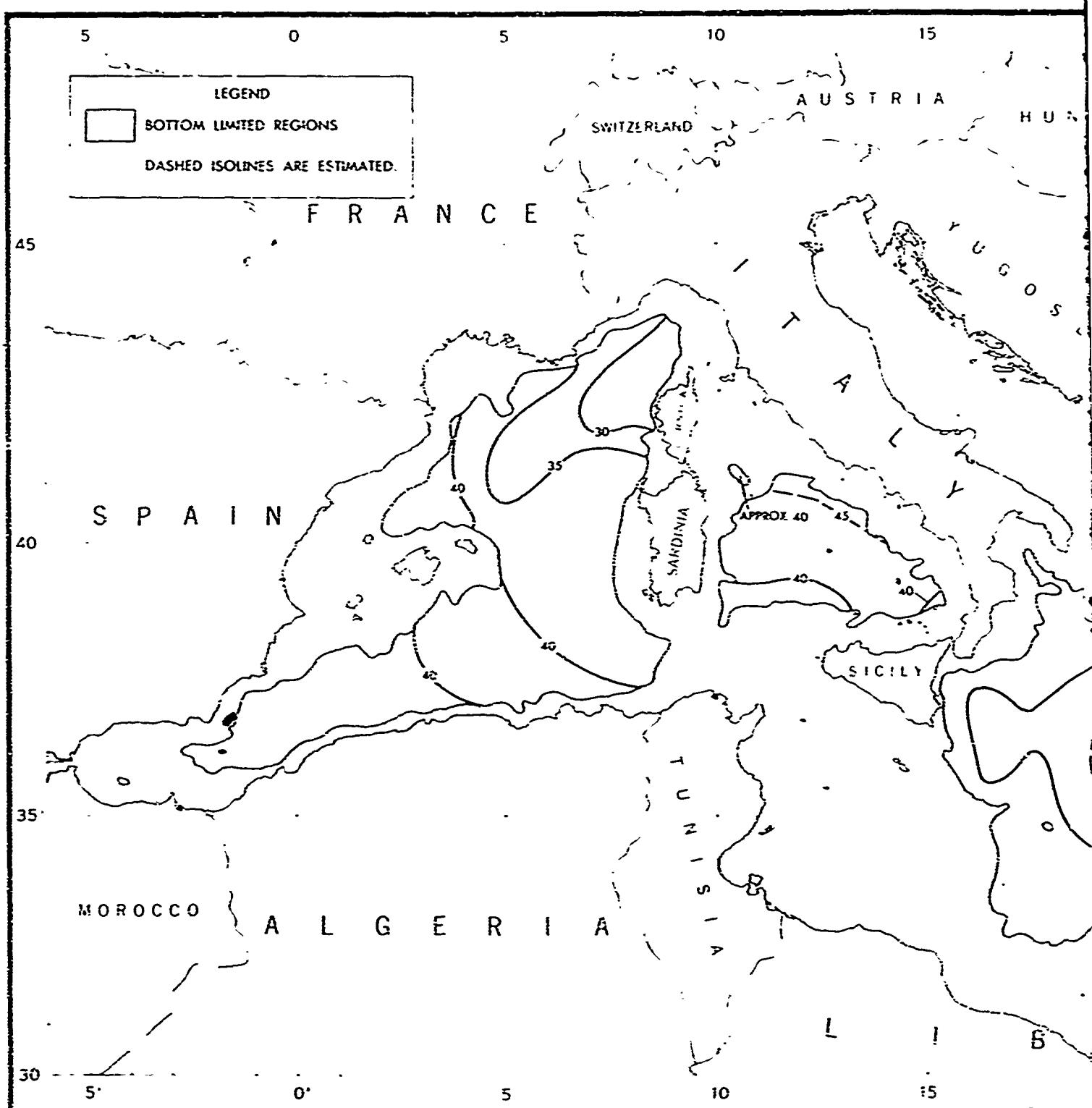
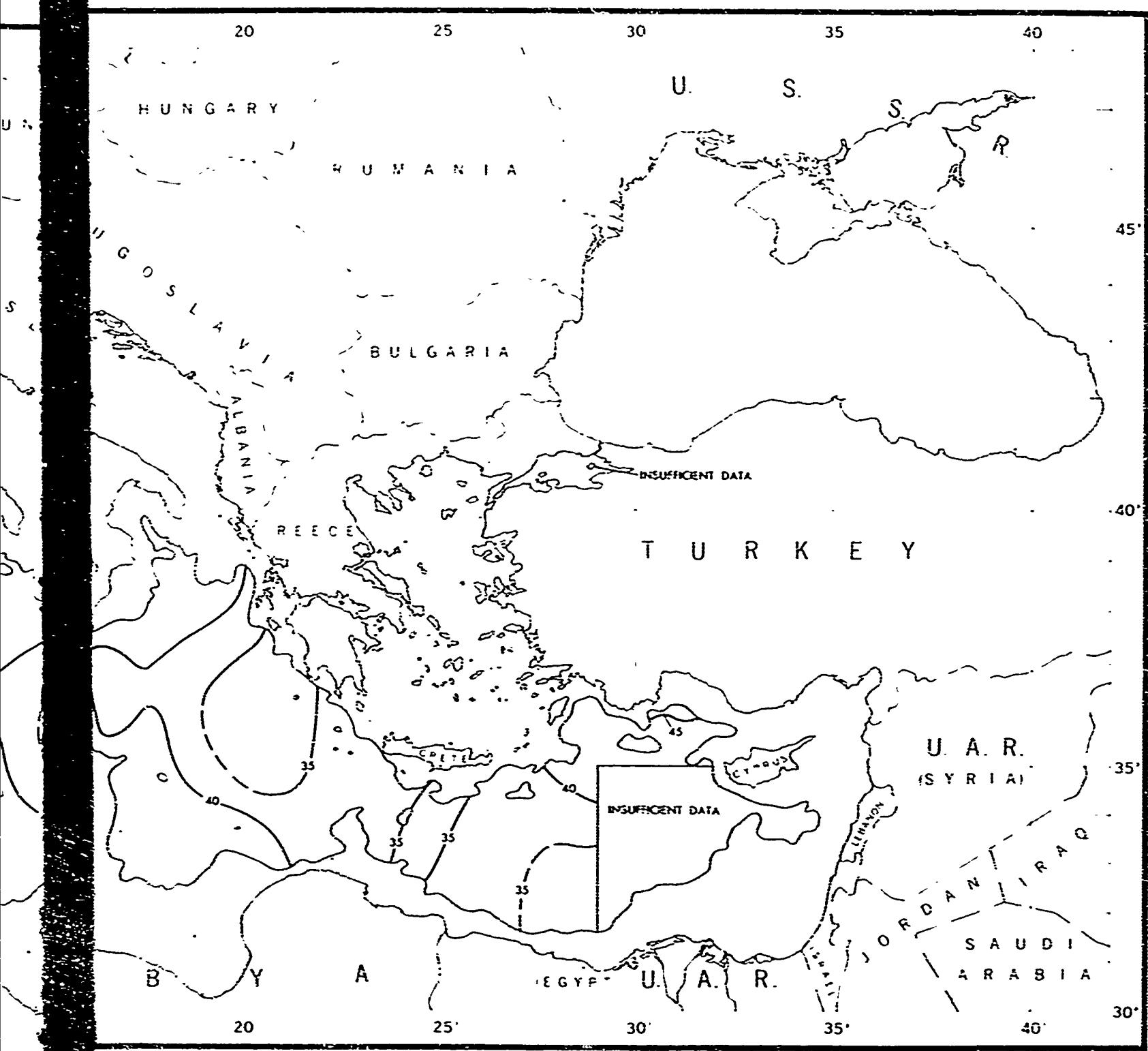


FIGURE 62. CONVERGENCE ZONE RANGE (KILOBARC) IN THE



THE AREA OF 100 YARDS IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, SUMMER

FIGURE 62. CONVERGENCE ZONE RANGE, SUMMER

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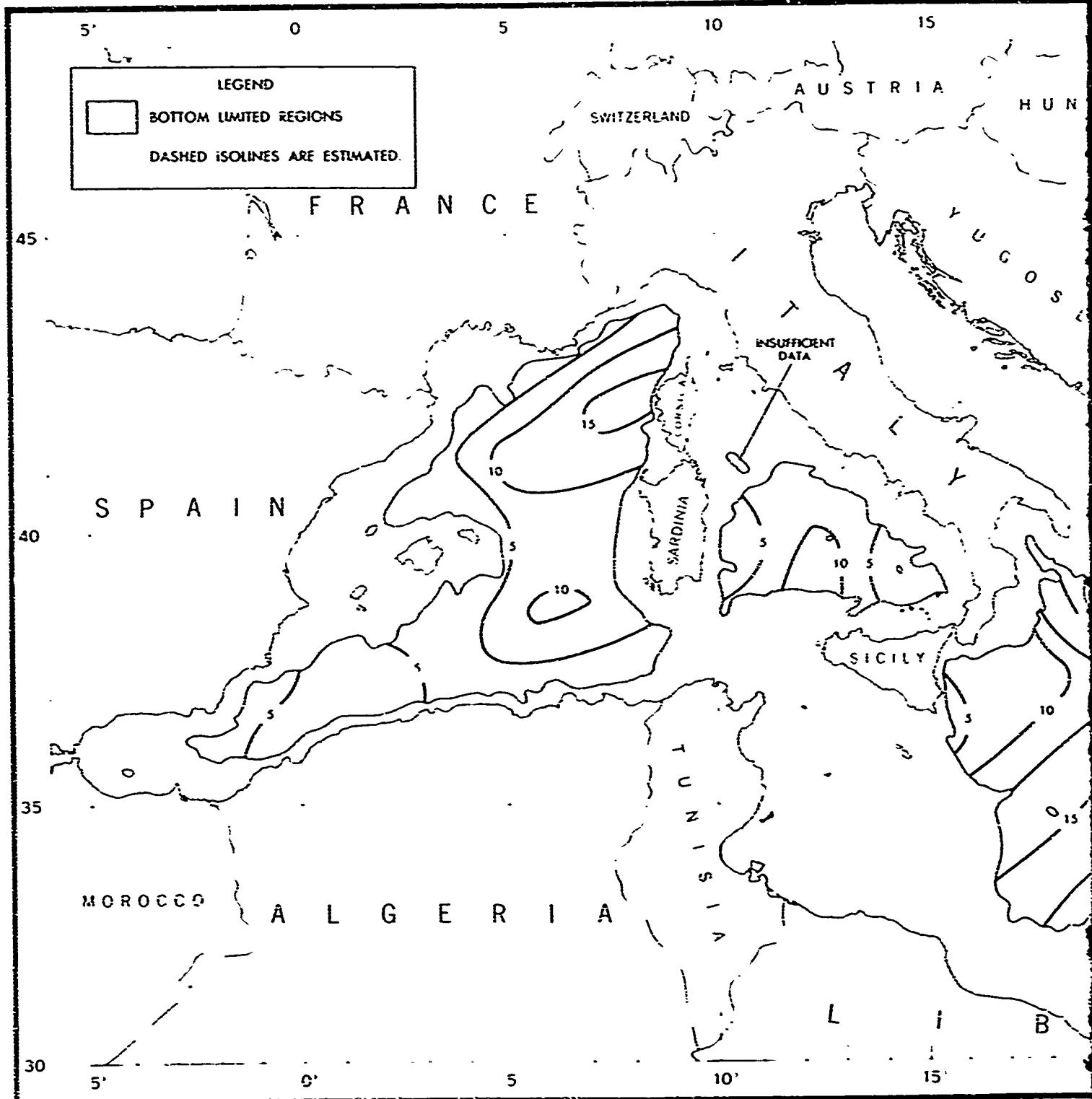
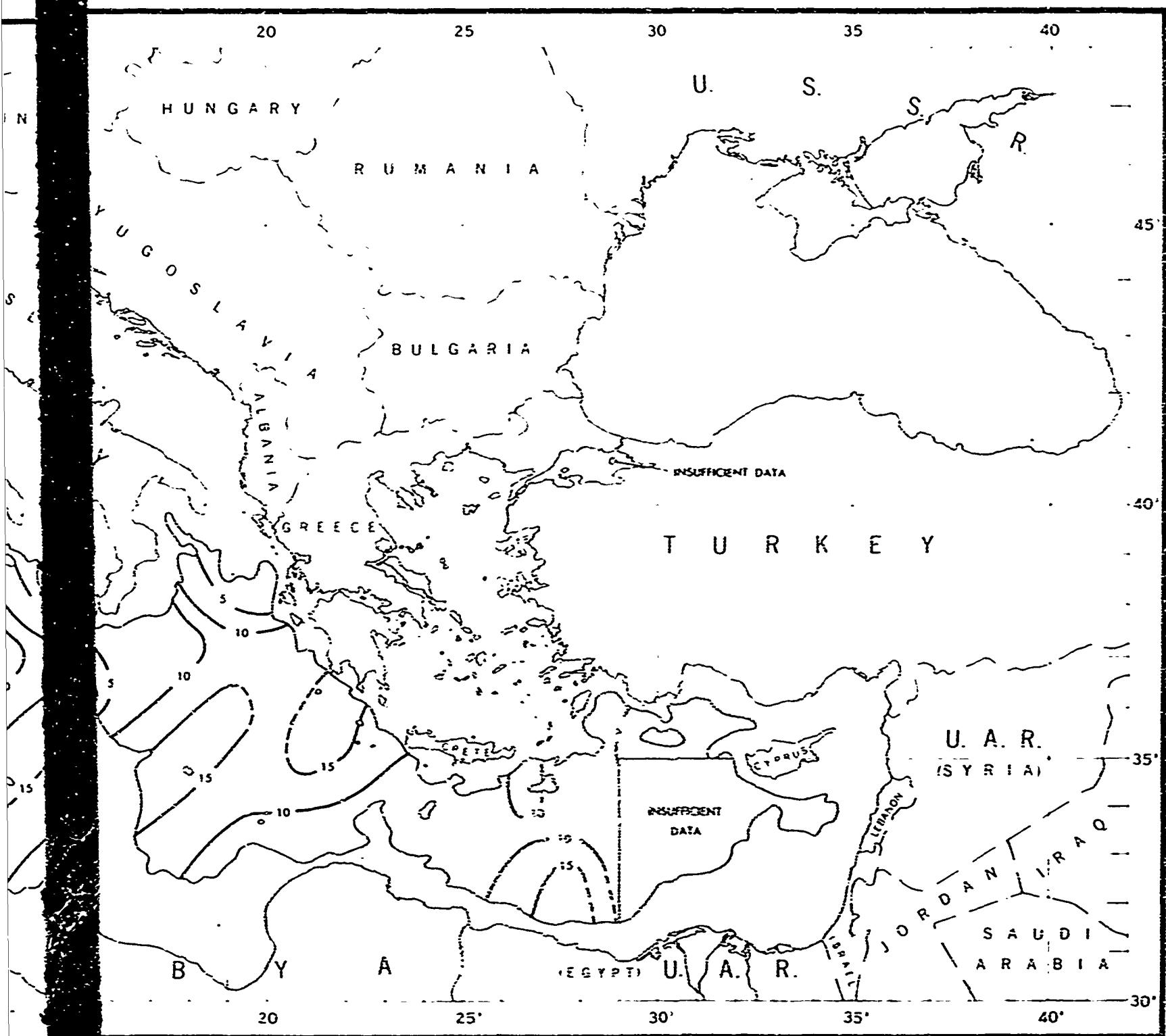


FIGURE 63. SURFACE INSONIFICATION INTERVAL (KILOYARDS) IN THE MEDITERRANEAN REGION



IN THE KILOYARDS) IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, SUMMER

FIGURE 63. SURFACE INSONIFICATION INTERVAL, SUMMER

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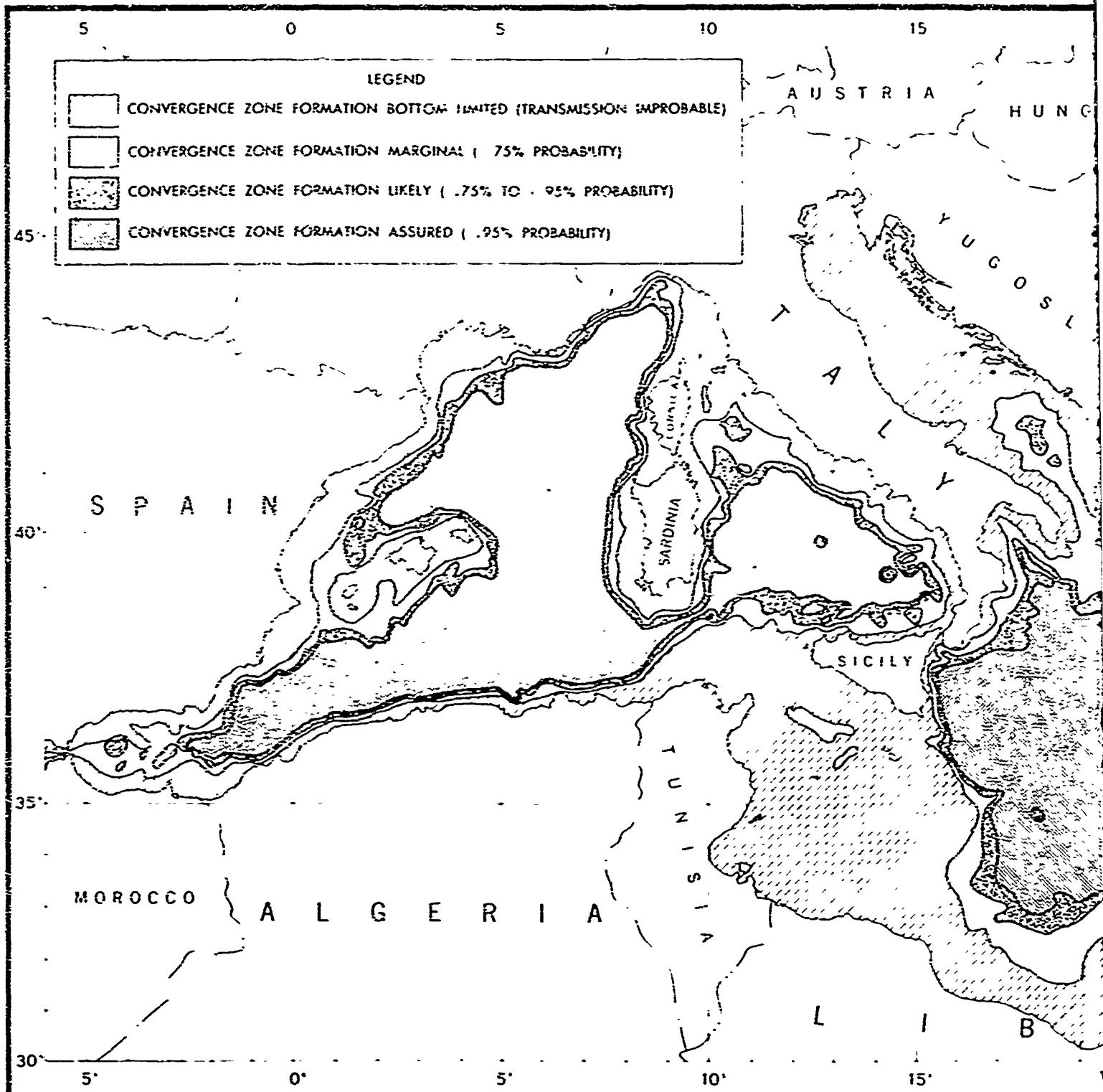
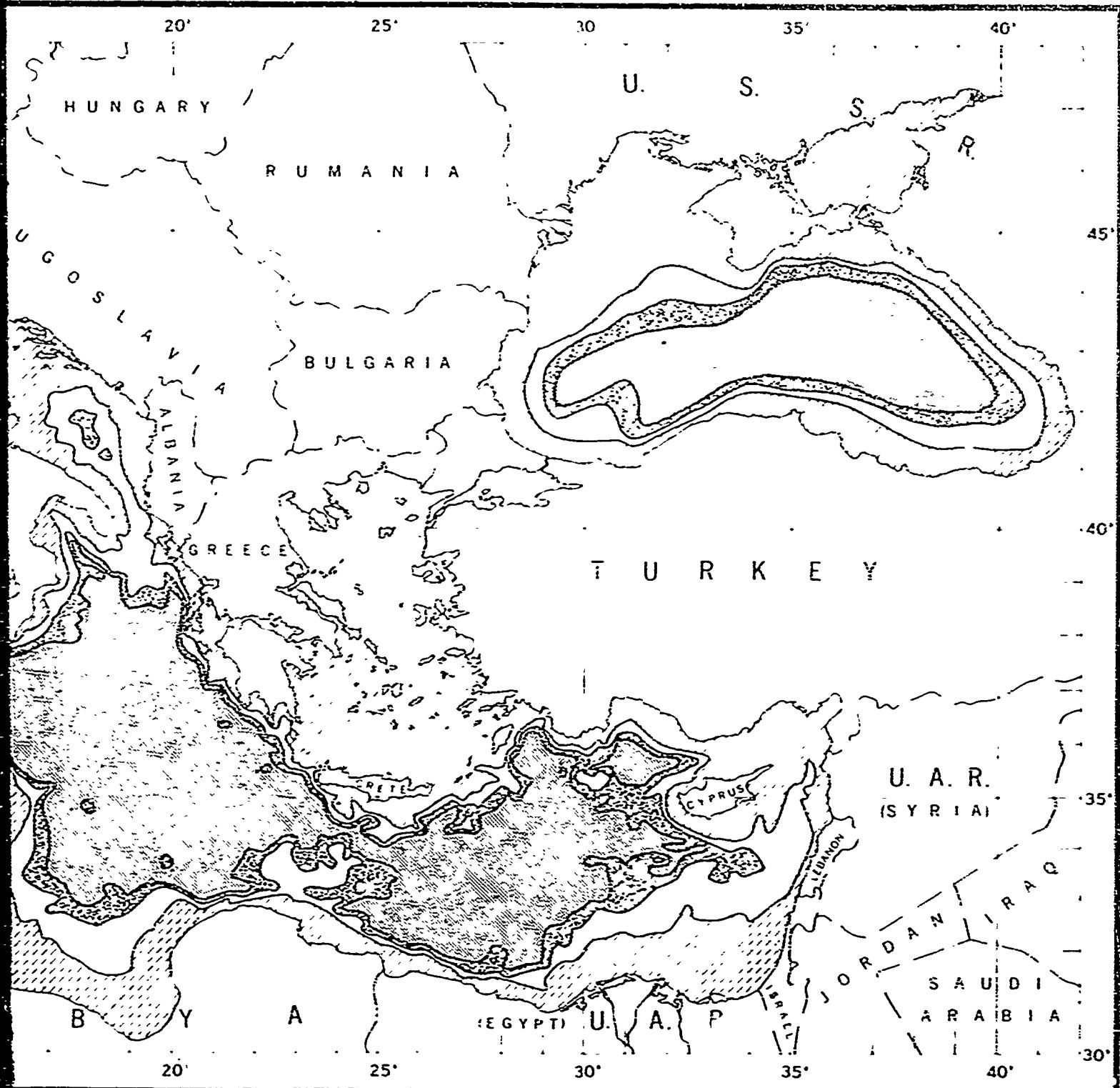


FIGURE 64. PERCENT PROBABILITY OF CONVERGENCE ZONE FORMATION IN



NE FORMATION IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, FALL

FIGURE 64. CONVERGENCE ZONE FORMATION, FALL

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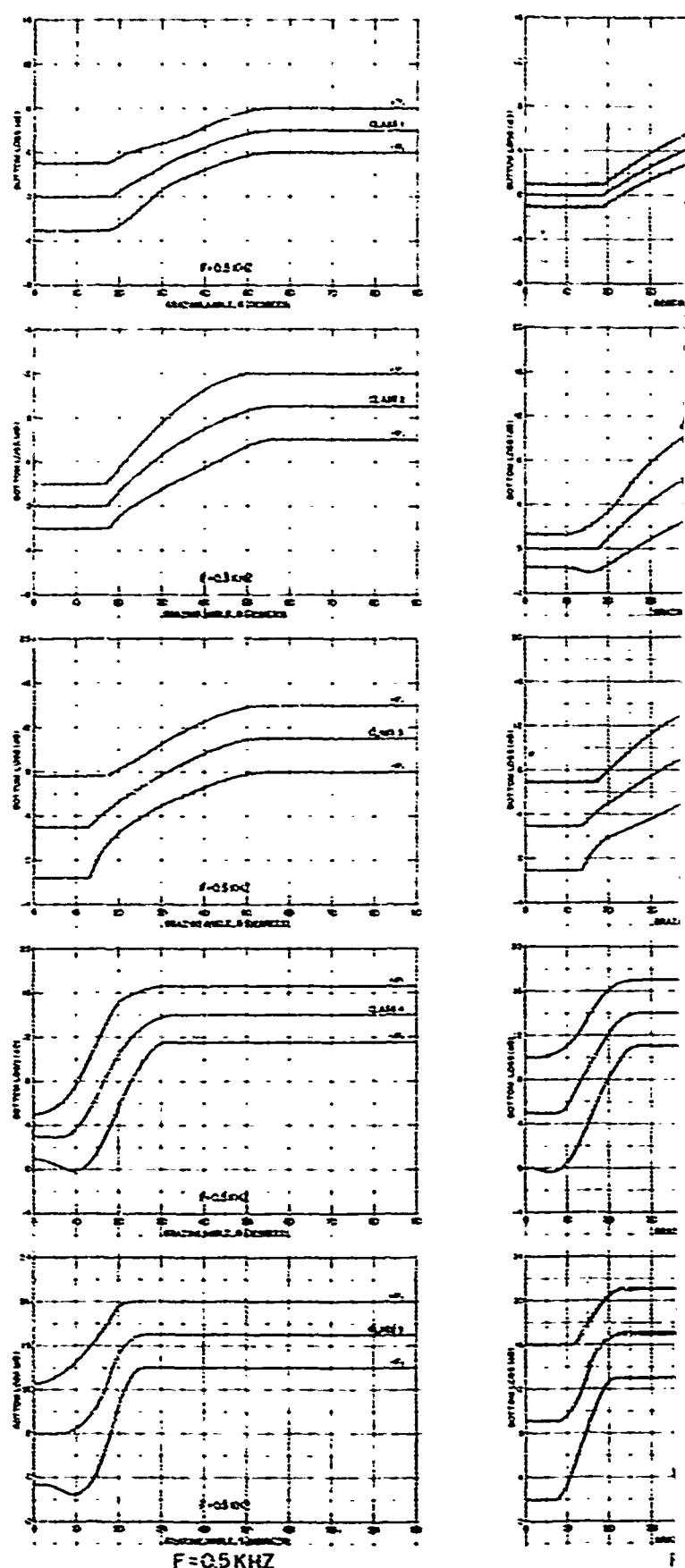
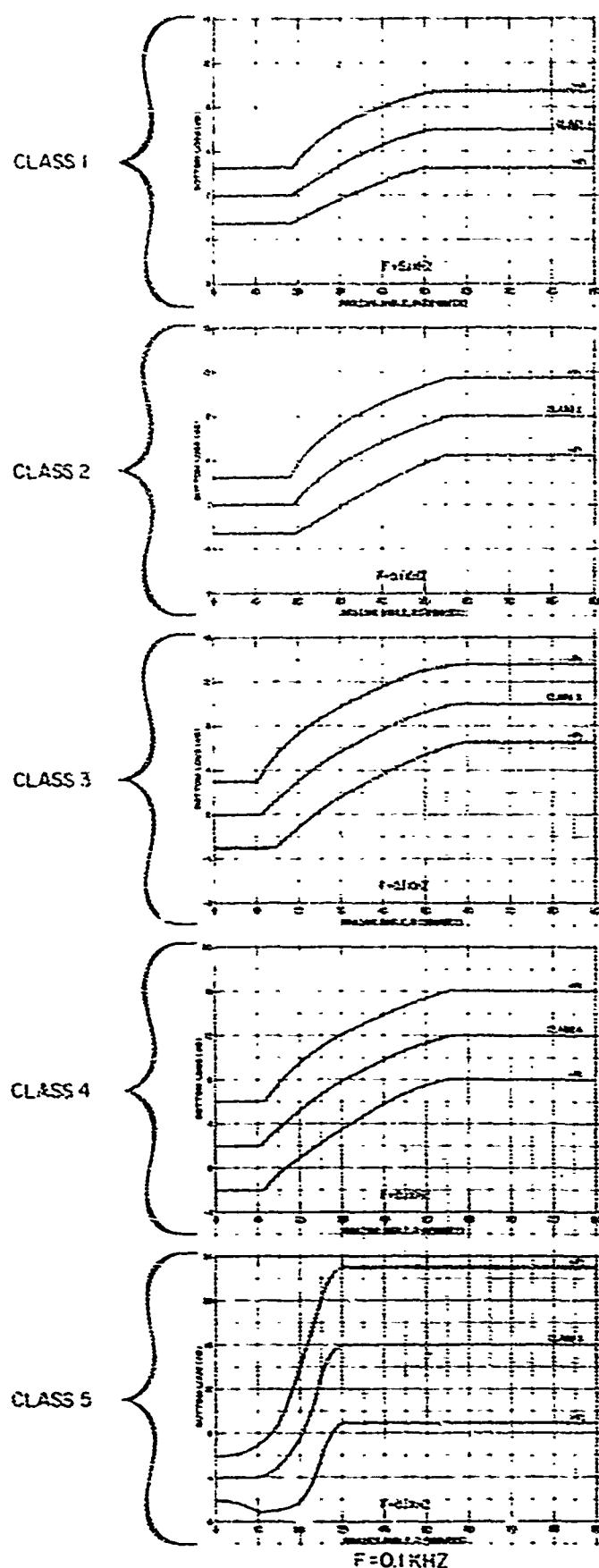
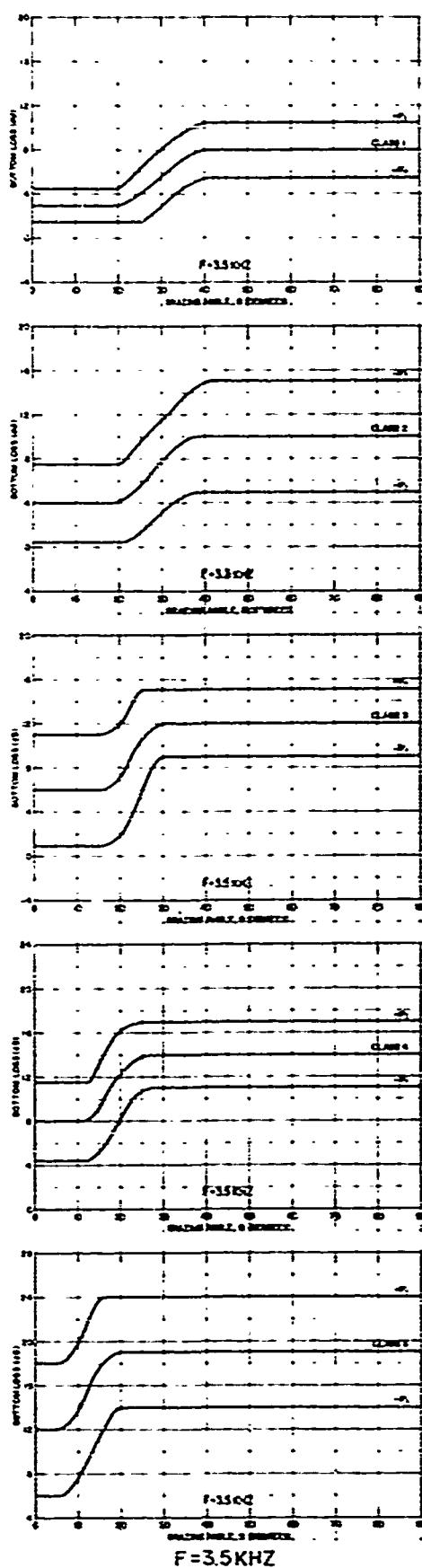
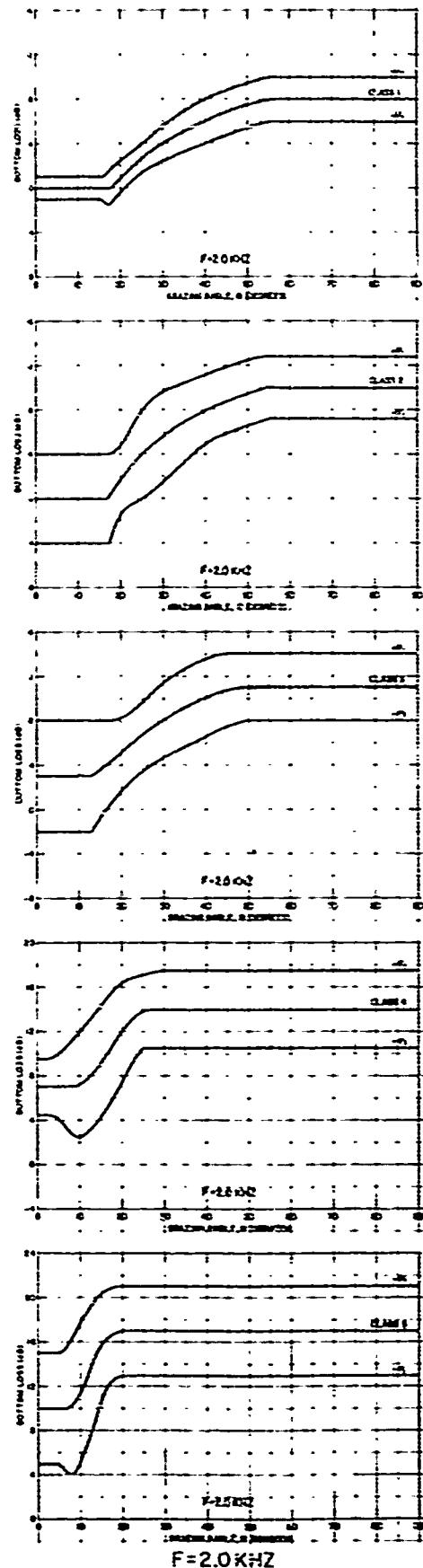
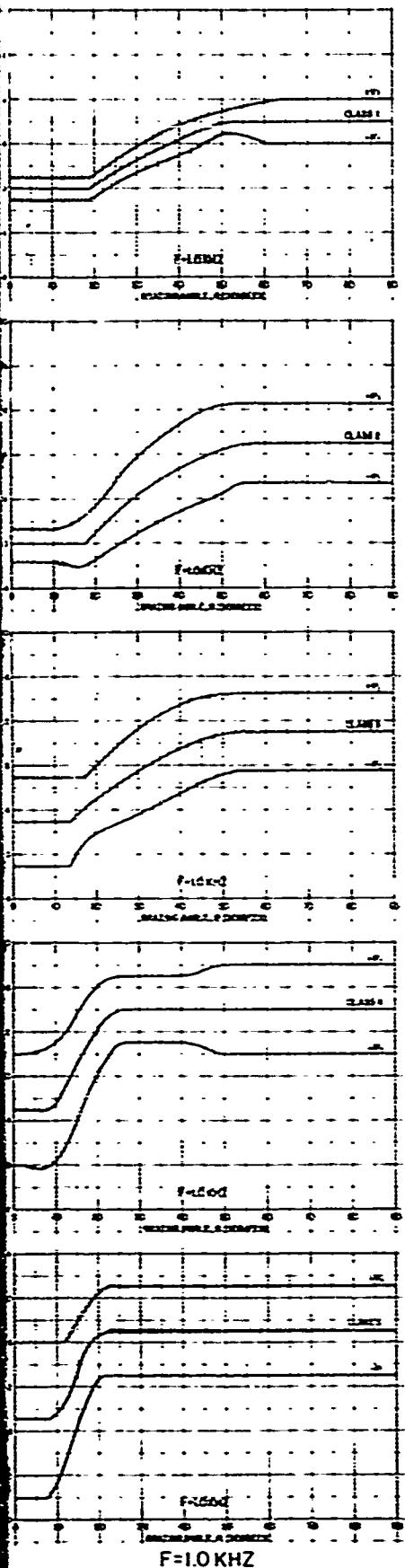


FIGURE 65. ACOUSTIC BOTTOM LOSS IN

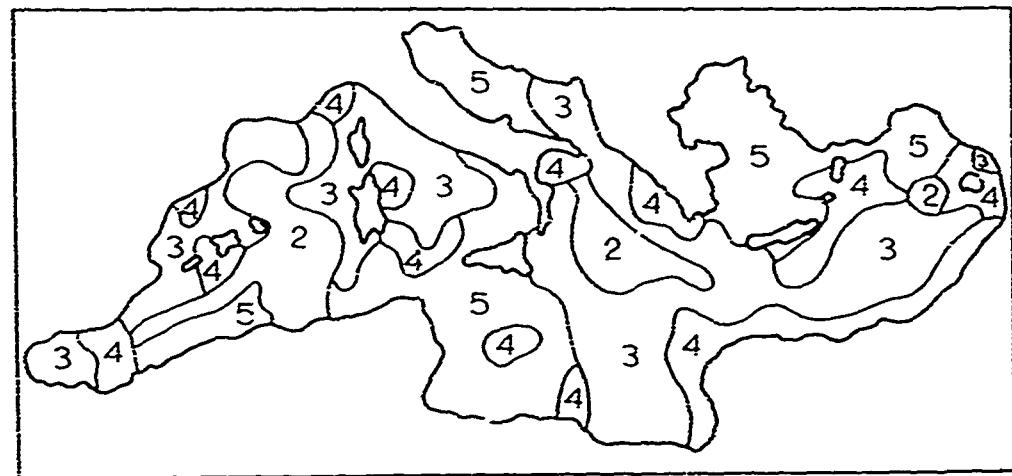


BOTTOM LOSS IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA

FIGURE 65. BOTTOM LOSS

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#### BOTTOM LOSS CLASSES

- 1 Very Low Loss
- 2 Relatively Low Loss
- 3 Intermediate Loss
- 4 Relatively High Loss
- 5 Very High Loss

Figure 66 Bottom Loss Regions of the Mediterranean Sea

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S. VELOCITY (MPS) 1400 1420 1440 1460 1480 1500 1520 1540 1560 1580 1600 1620 1640 1660 1680  
SALINITY PPT 37.00 37.20 37.40 37.60 37.80 38.00 38.20 38.40 38.60 38.80 39.00 39.20 39.40 39.60 39.80  
TEMPERATURE °C 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24

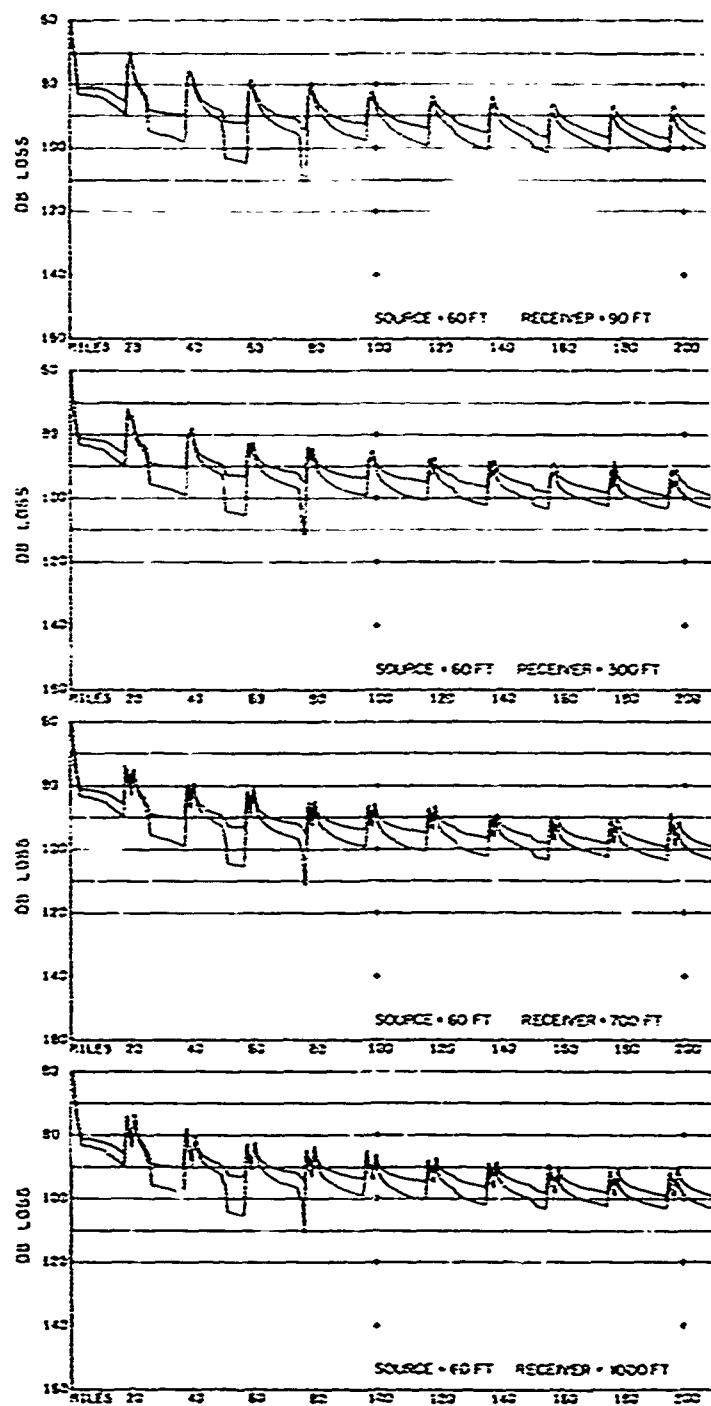
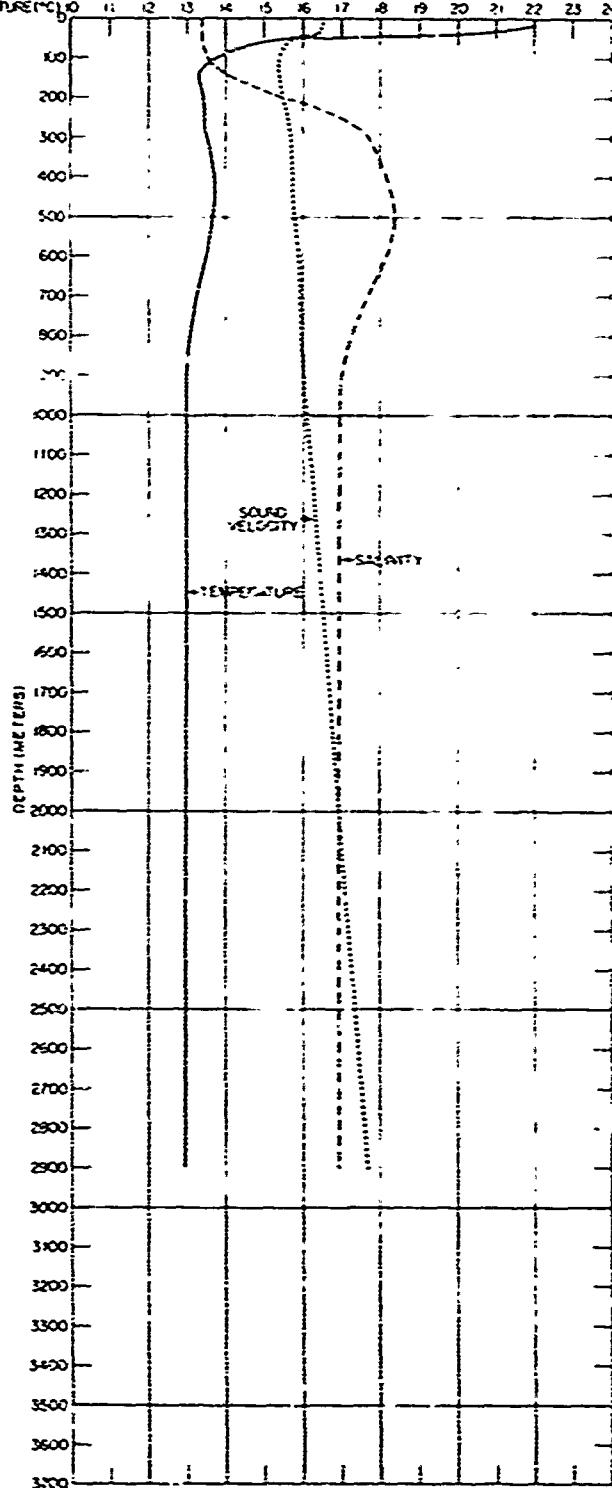
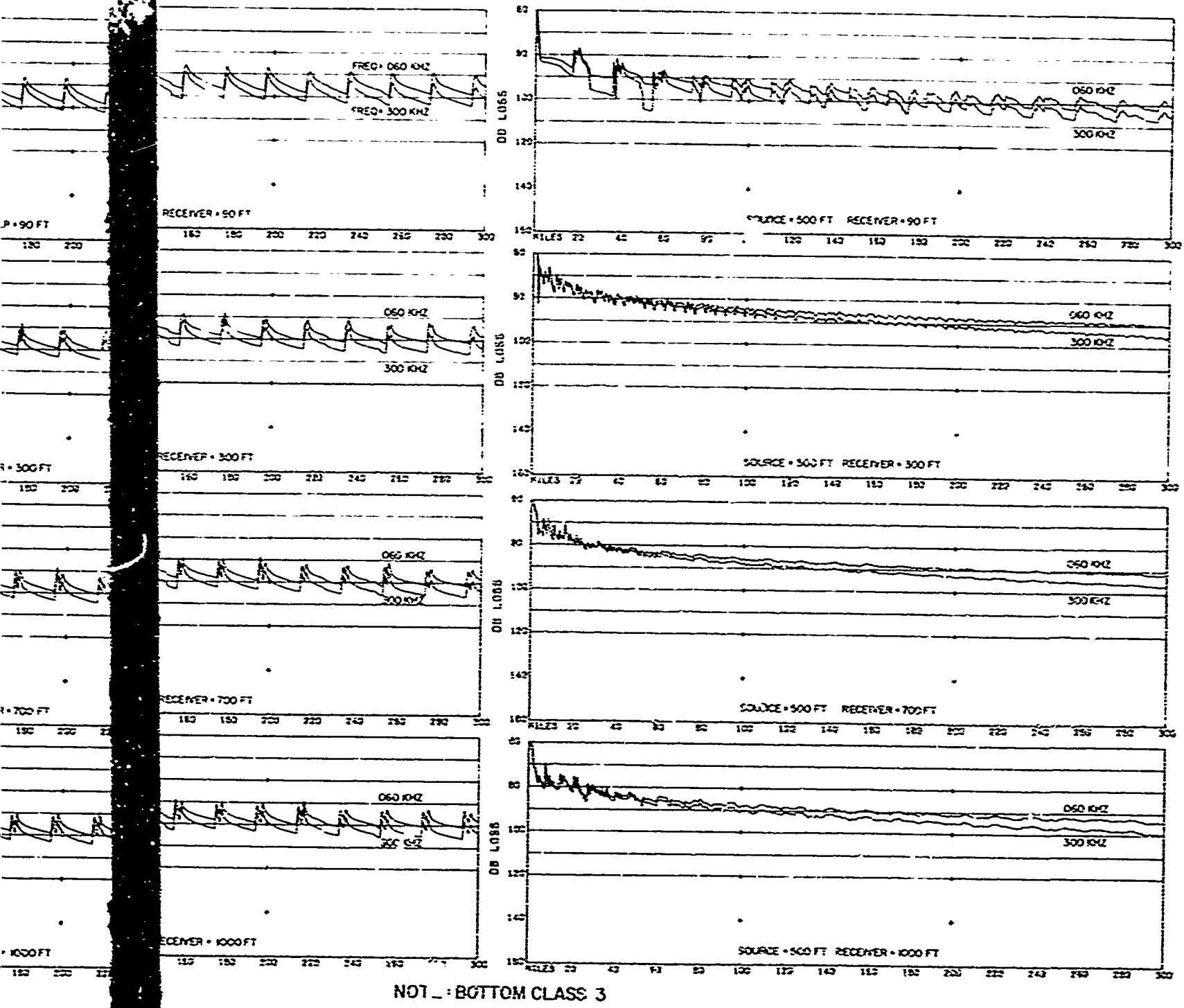


FIGURE 67. ACOUSTIC PROPAGATION LOSS, WESTERN MEDITERRAN



NOT : BOTTOM CLASS 3

MEDITERRANEAN SEA, SUMMER

FIGURE 67 PROPAGATION LOSS, WESTERN MEDITERRANEAN, SUMMER

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S VELC TIPS 440 460 480 500 520 540 560 580 600 620 640 660 680 700  
SEASAT 520 540 560 580 600 620 640 660 680 700 720 740 760 780 800 820  
TEMPERATURE 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18

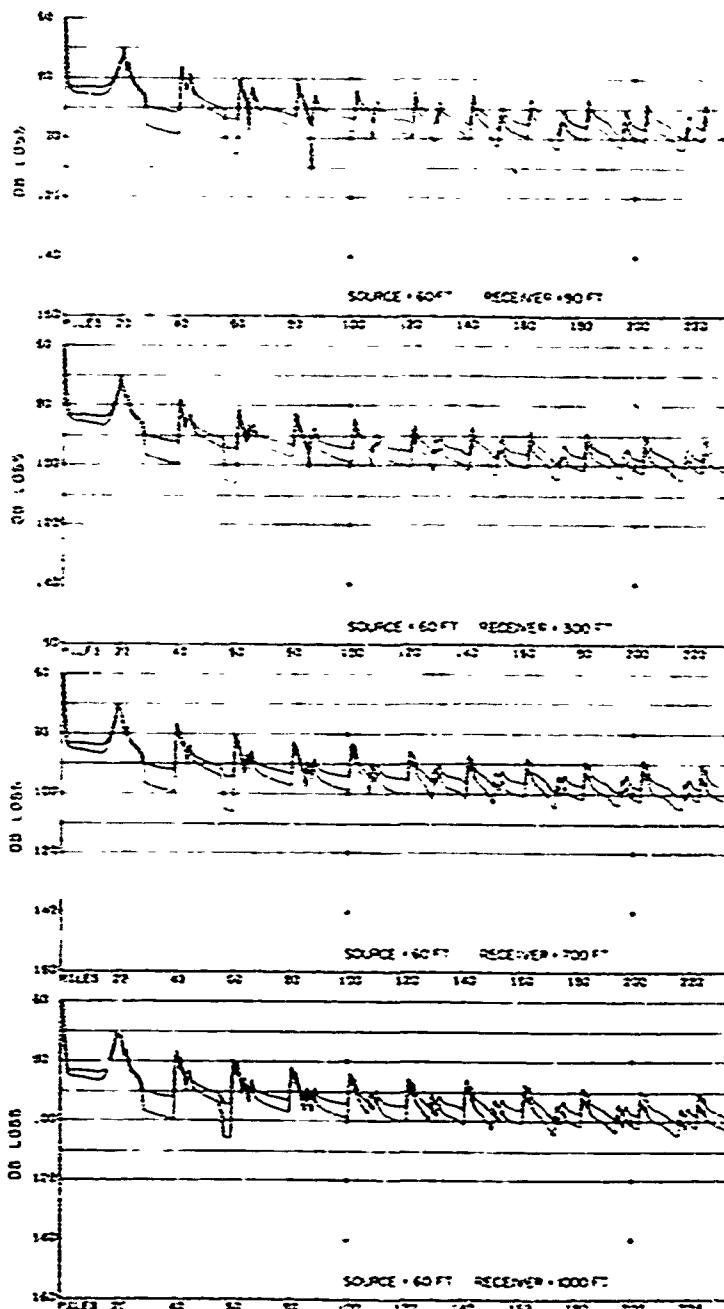
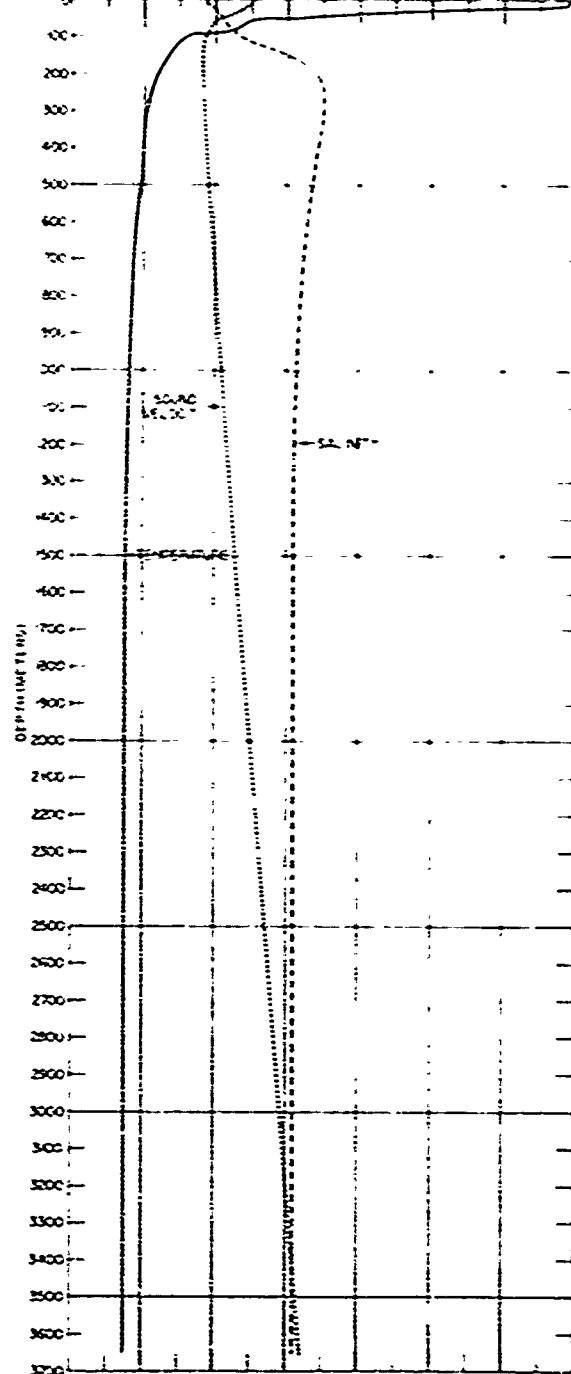
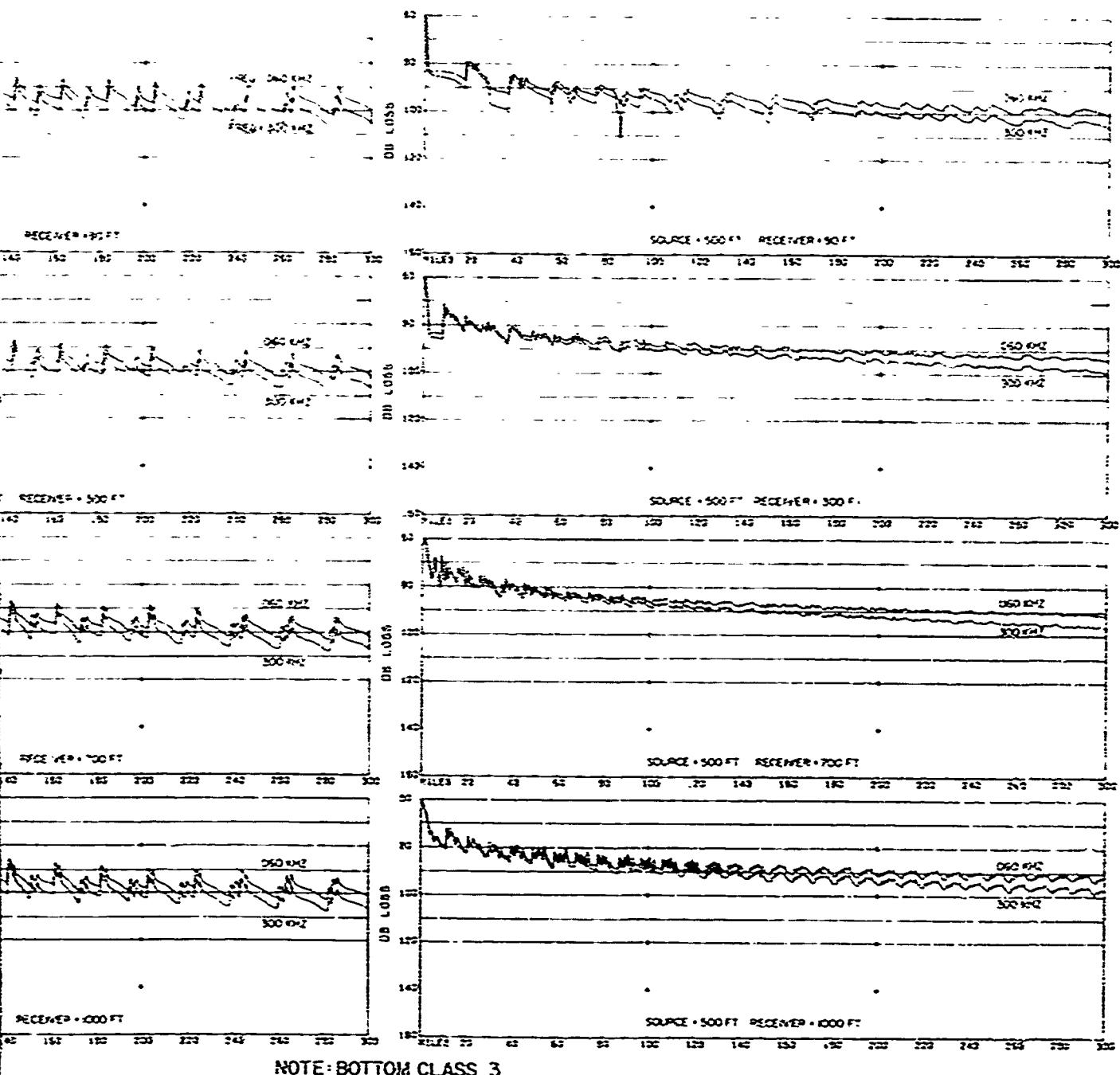


FIGURE 68. ACOUSTIC PROPAGATION LOSS, CENTRAL MEDITERRANEAN SEA, SURFACE



NOTE: BOTTOM CLASS 3

SUMMER  
MEDITERRANEAN SEA, SUMMER

FIGURE 58. PROPAGATION LOSS, CENTRAL MEDITERRANEAN, SUMMER

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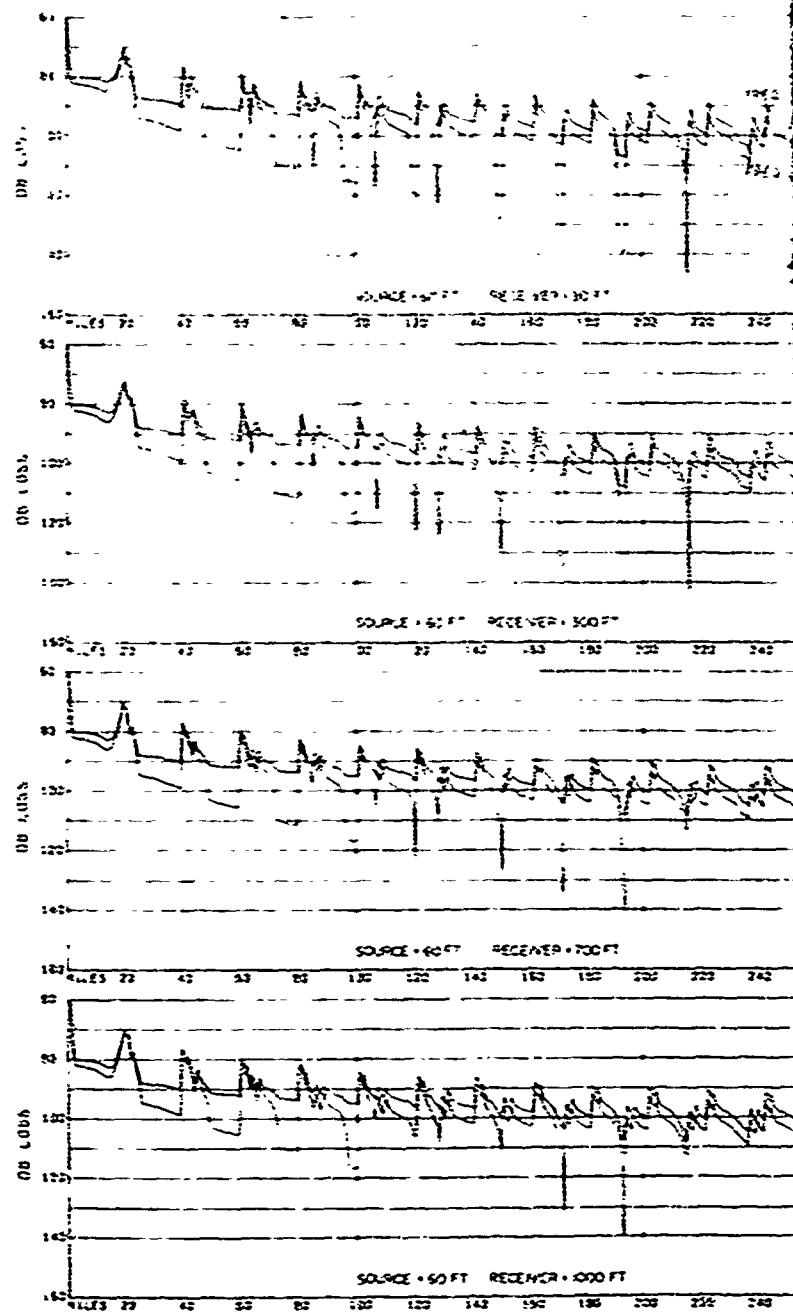
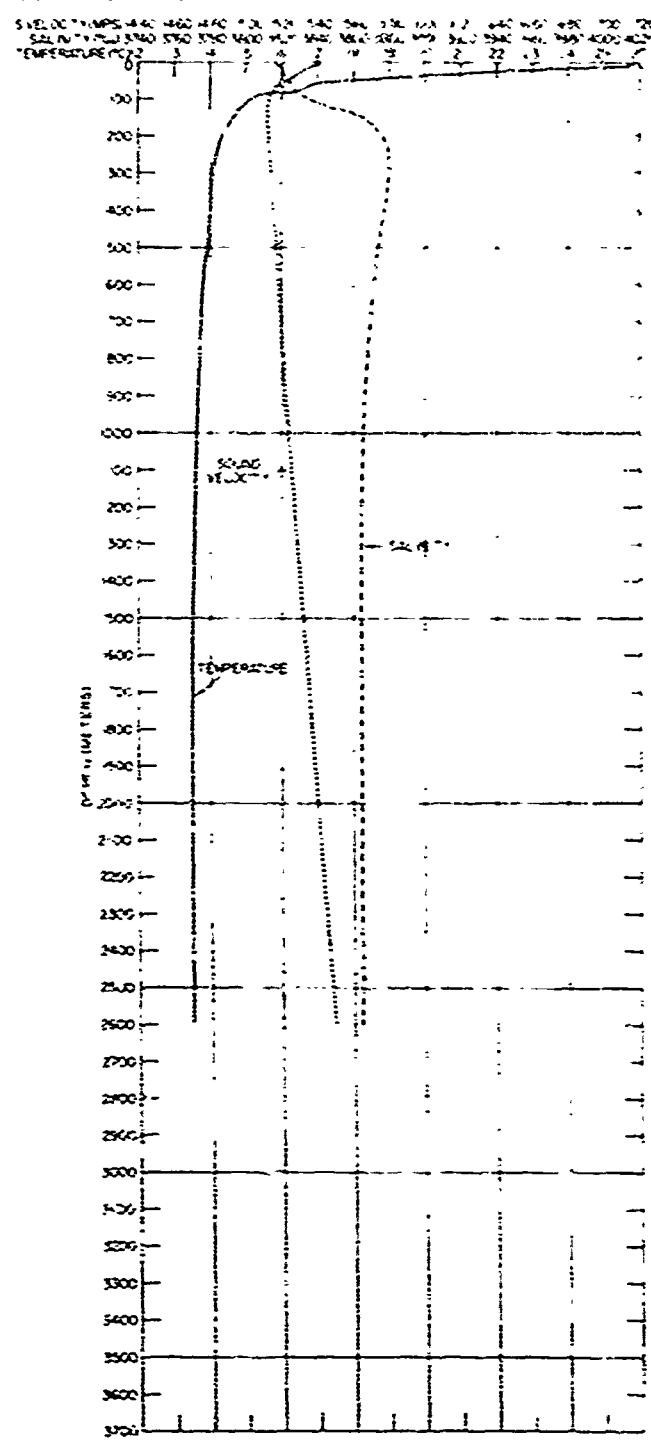
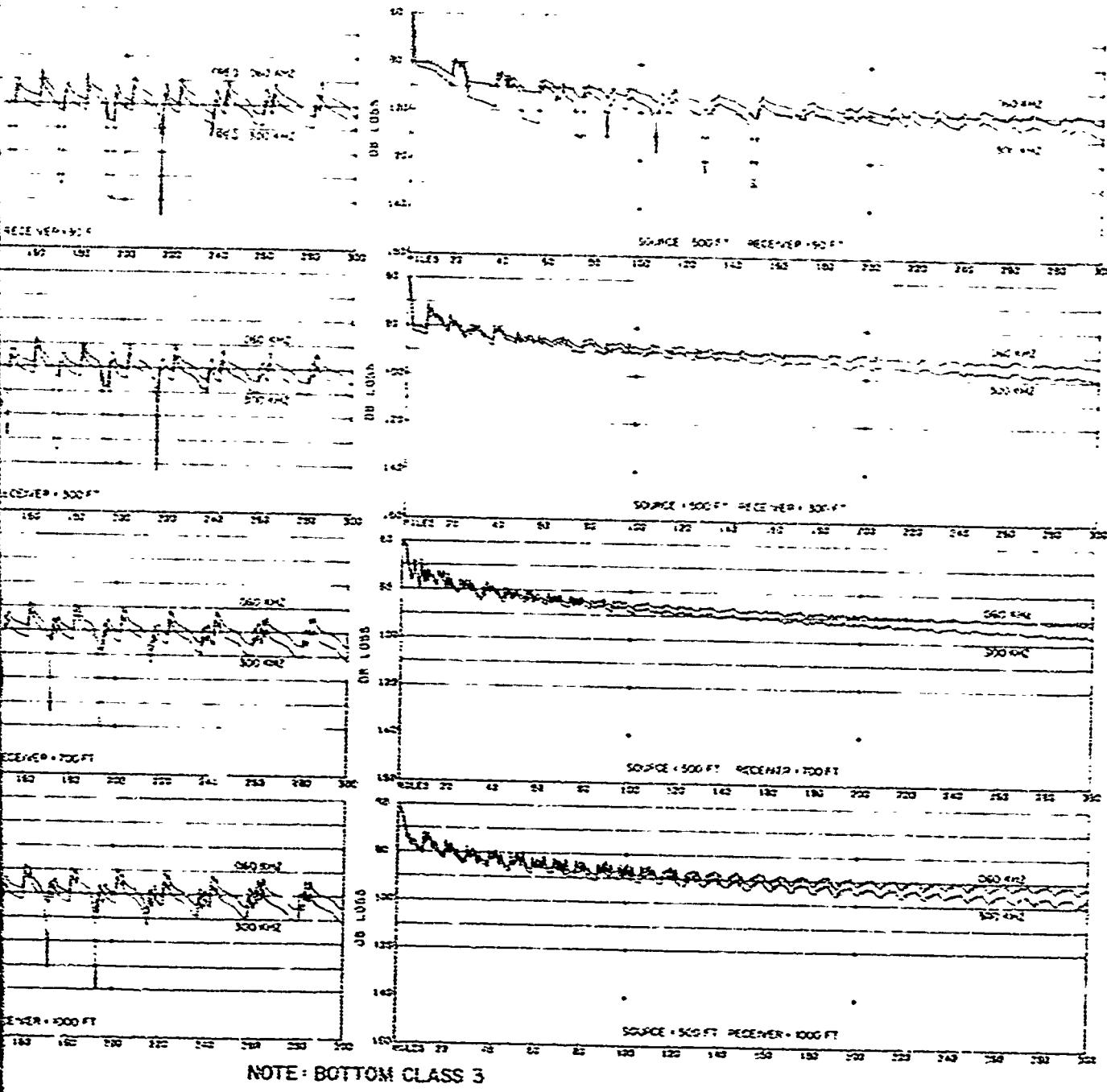


FIGURE 69. ACUSTIC PROPAGATION LOSS, EASTERN MEDITERRANEAN SEA, SUMMER



MEDITERRANEAN SEA, SUMMER

FIGURE 59. PROPAGATION LOSS, EASTERN MEDITERRANEAN, SUMMER

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SWINERTON  
SALINITY  
TEMPERATURE  
9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22

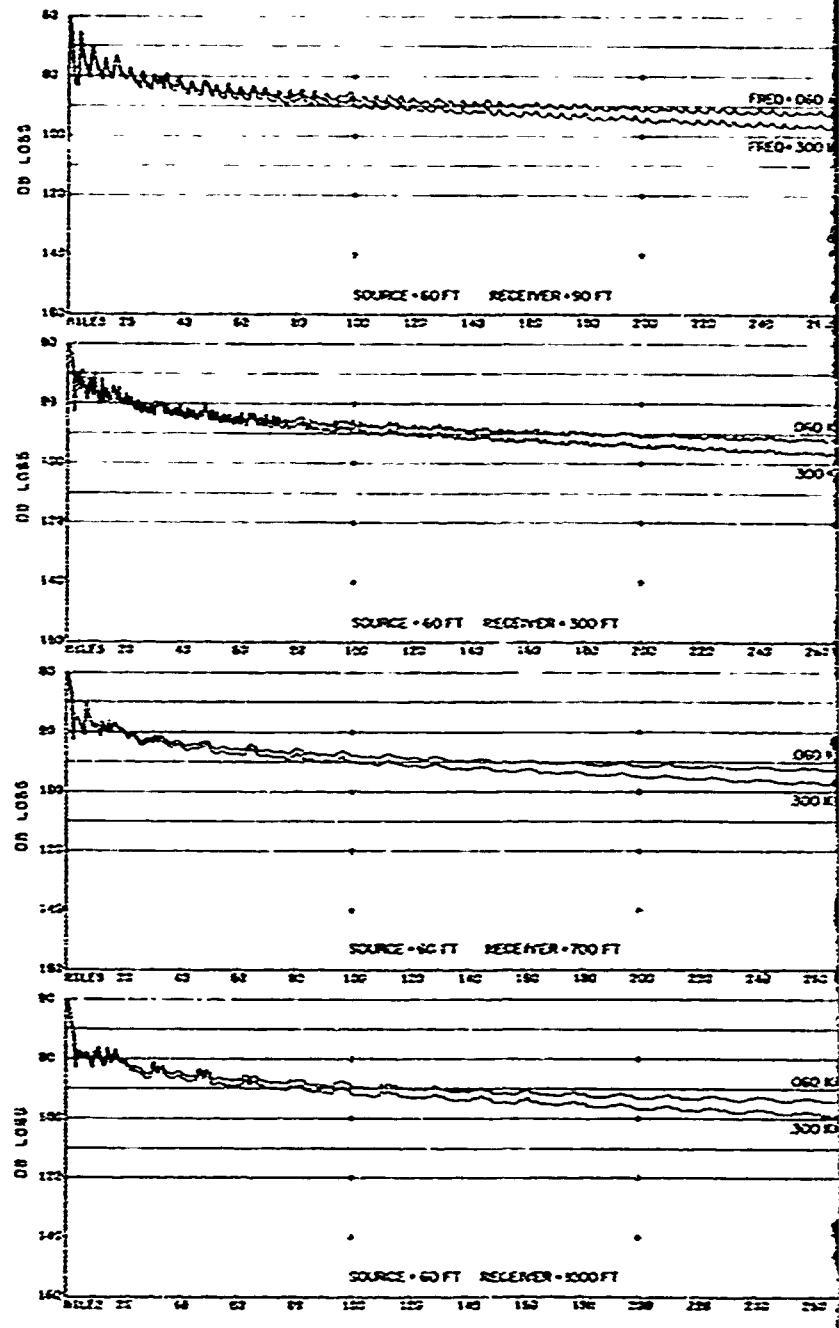
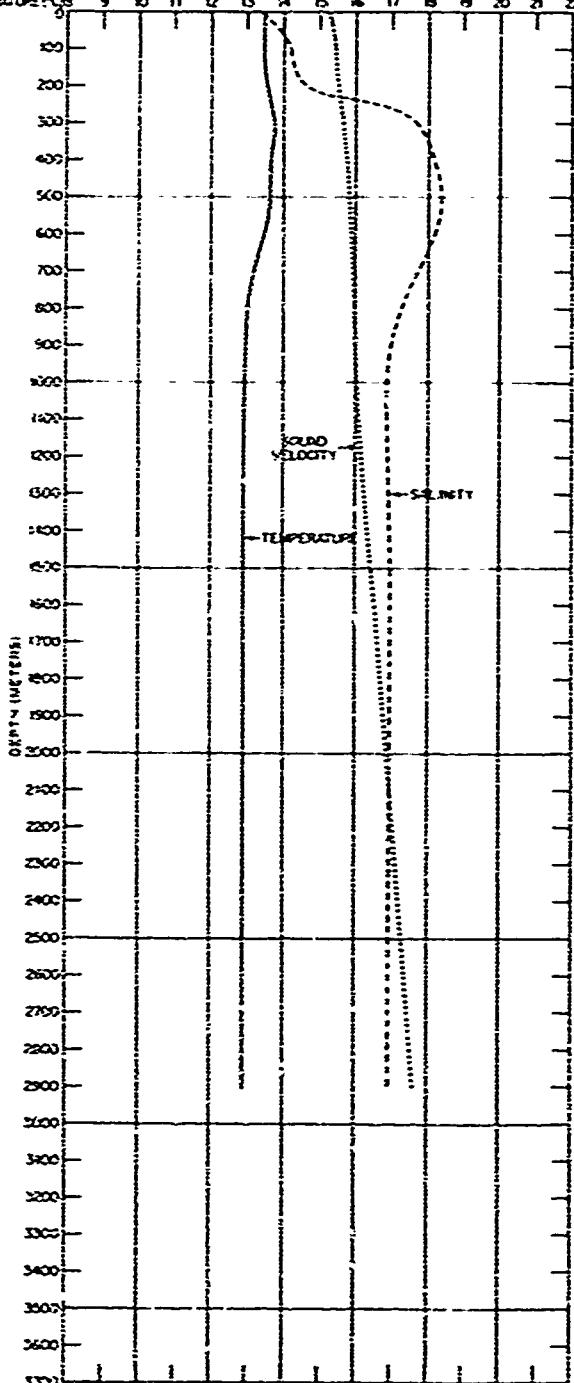
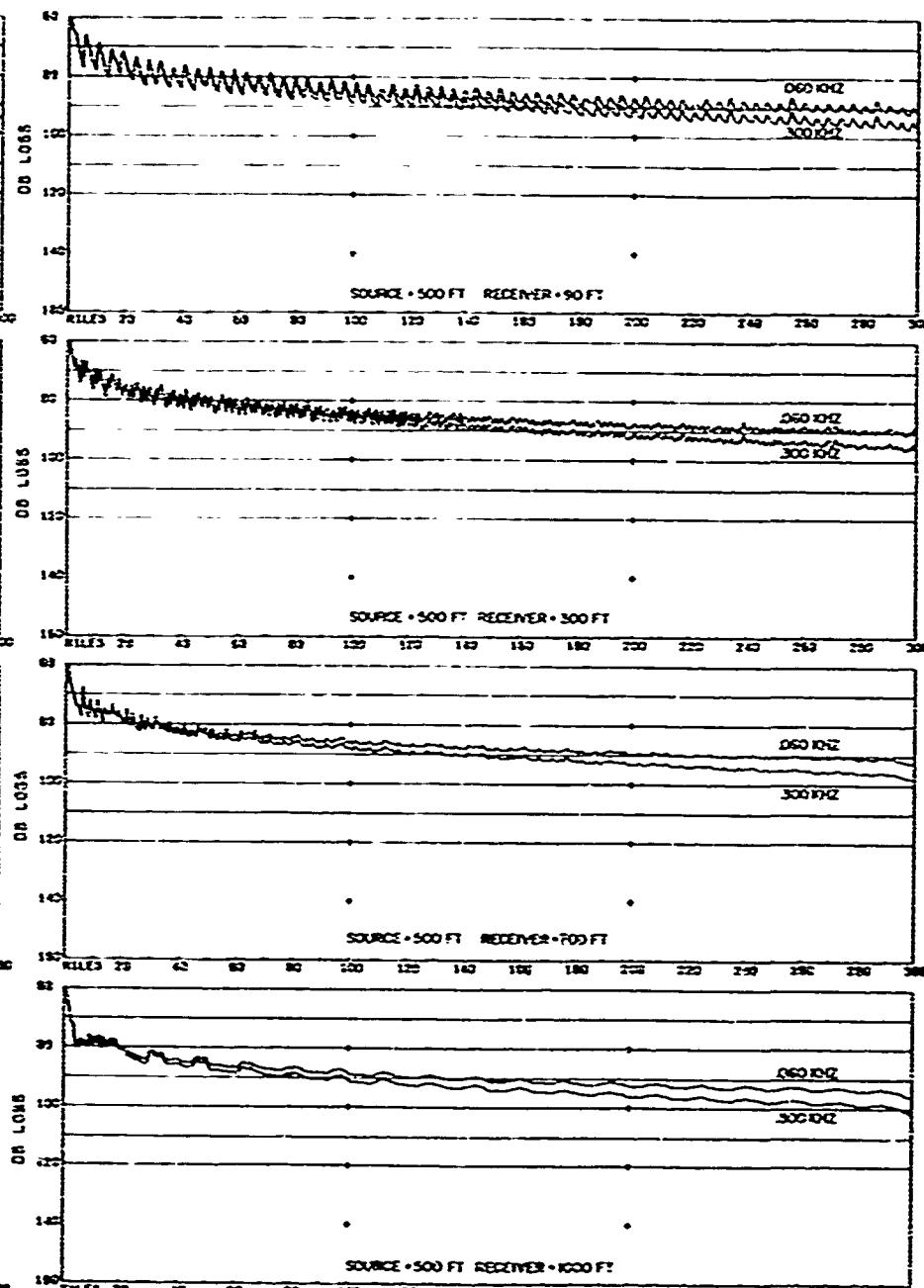
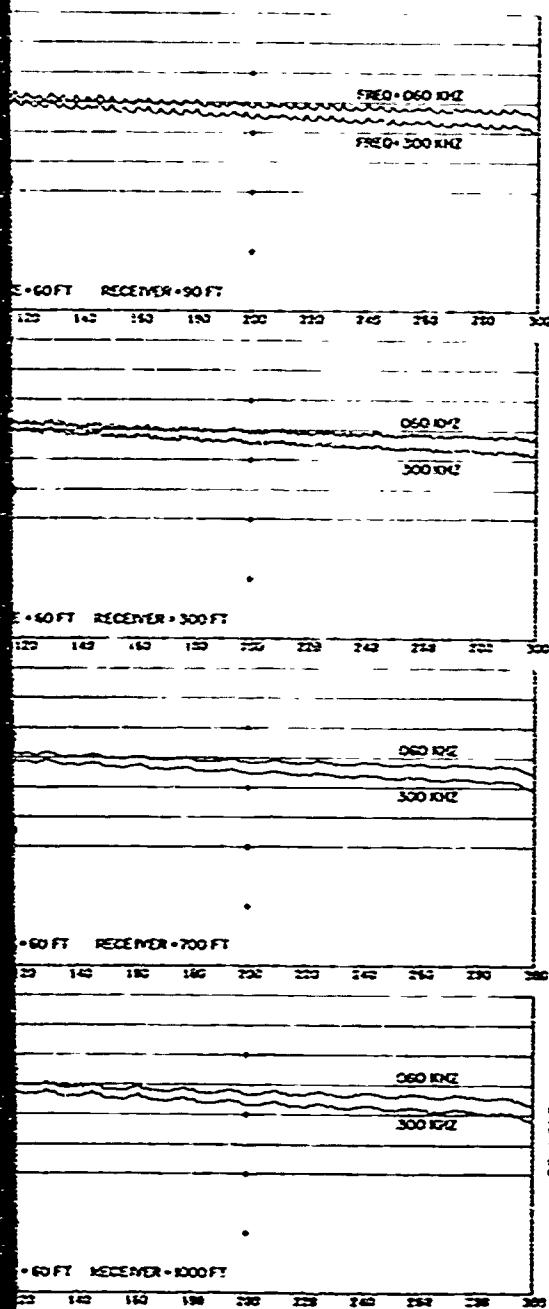


FIGURE 70. ACOUSTIC PROPAGATION LOSS, WESTERN MEDITERRANEAN SEA, WINTER



NOTE: BOTTOM CLASS 3

WESTERN MEDITERRANEAN SEA, WINTER

FIGURE 70. PROPAGATION LOSS, WESTERN MEDITERRANEAN, WINTER

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VELOCITY (MPS) 1380 1400 1420 1440 1460 1480 1500 1520 1540 1560 1580 1600 1620 1640 1660  
SALINITY 19.5 33.650 33.690 33.730 33.770 33.810 33.850 33.890 33.930 33.970 34.010 34.050  
TEMPERATURE (°C) 19 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23

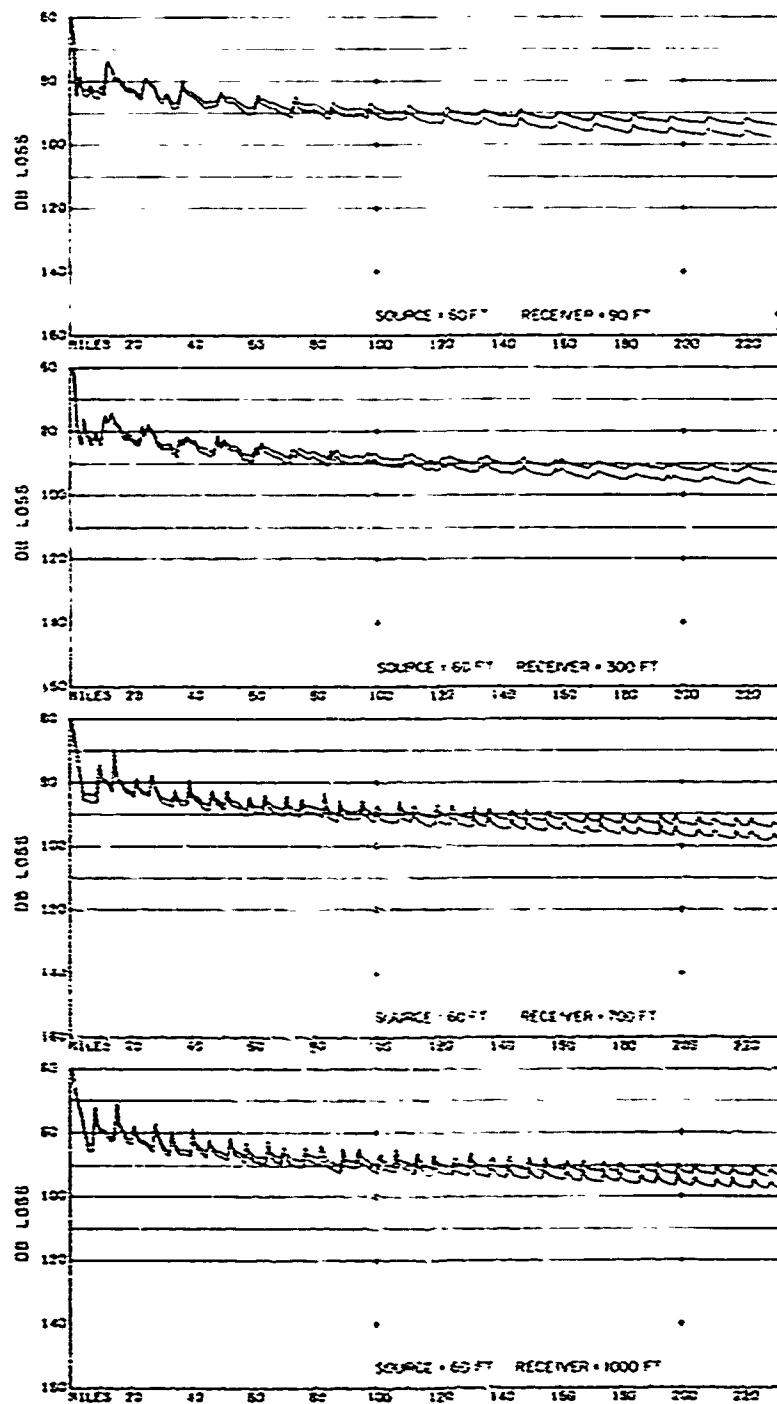
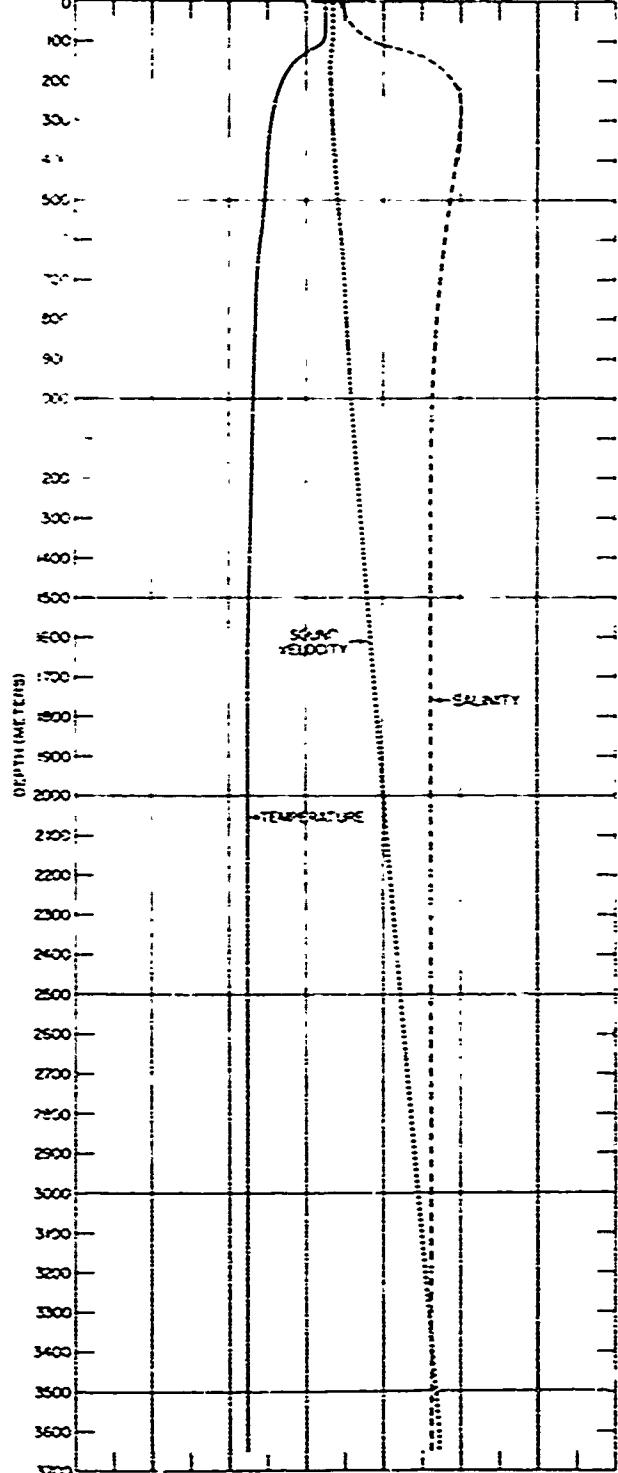
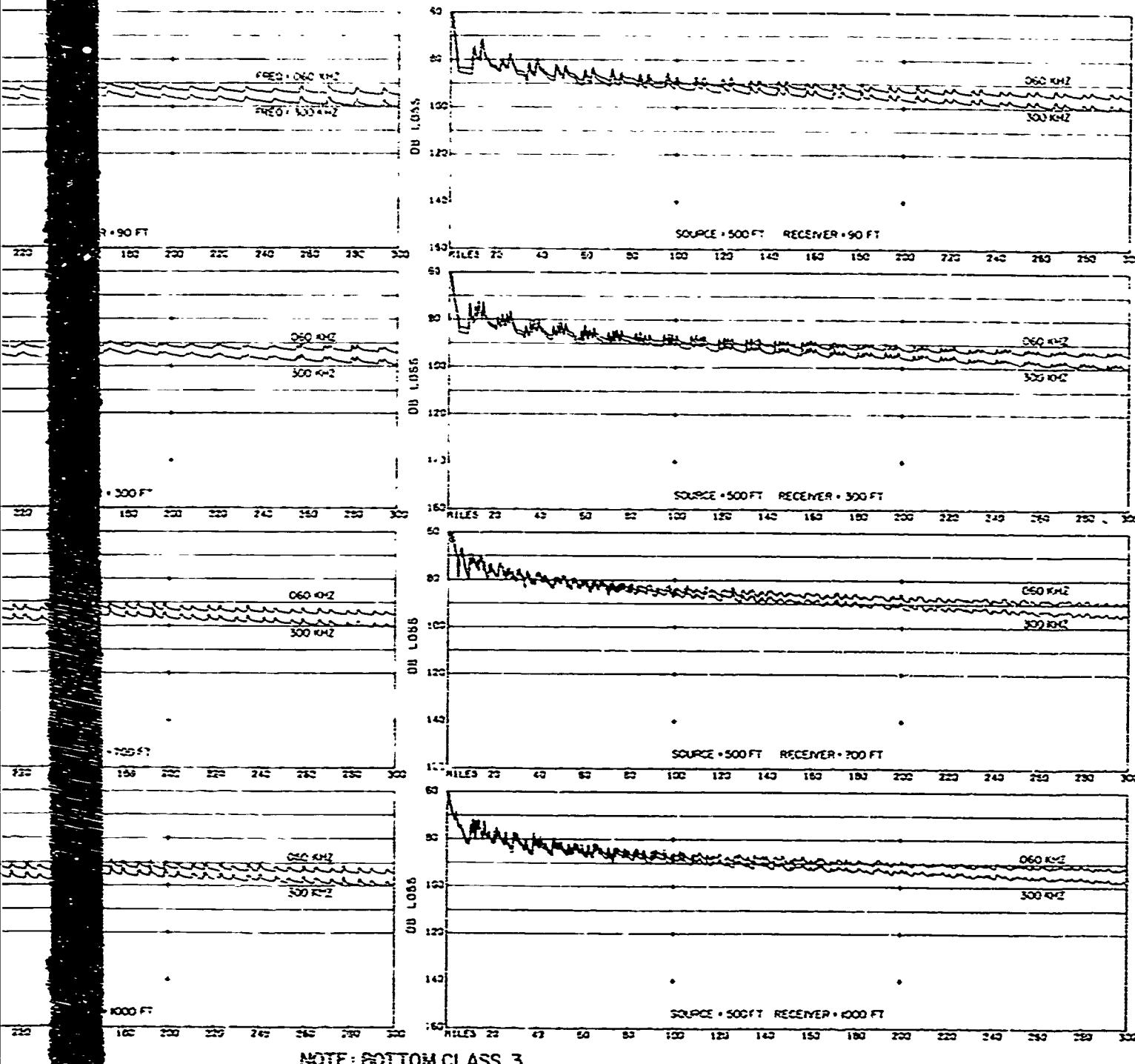


FIGURE 71. ACOUSTIC PROPAGATION LOSS, CENTRAL MEDITERRANEAN SEA, WIN



NOTE: BOTTOM CLASS 3

WINTER MEDITERRANEAN SEA, WINTER

FIGURE 71. PROPAGATION LOSS, CENTRAL MEDITERRANEAN, WINTER

CONFIDENTIAL

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SPEED OF SOUND (MPS) 1320 1400 1430 1440 1460 1480 1500 1520 1540 1560 1580 1600 1620 1640 1660  
SALINITY (‰) 36.80 37.00 37.20 37.40 37.60 37.80 38.00 38.20 38.40 38.60 38.80 39.00 39.20 39.40 39.60  
TEMPERATURE (°C) 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23

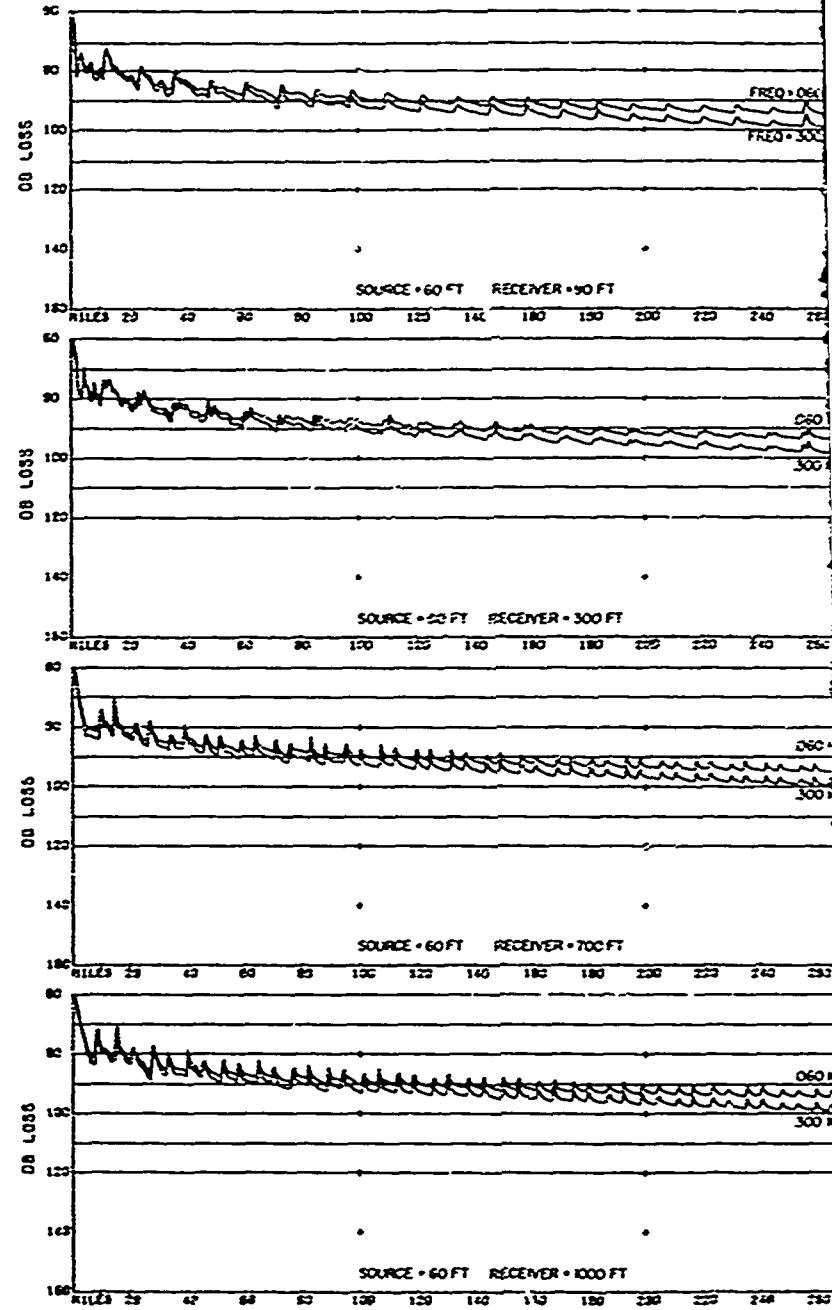
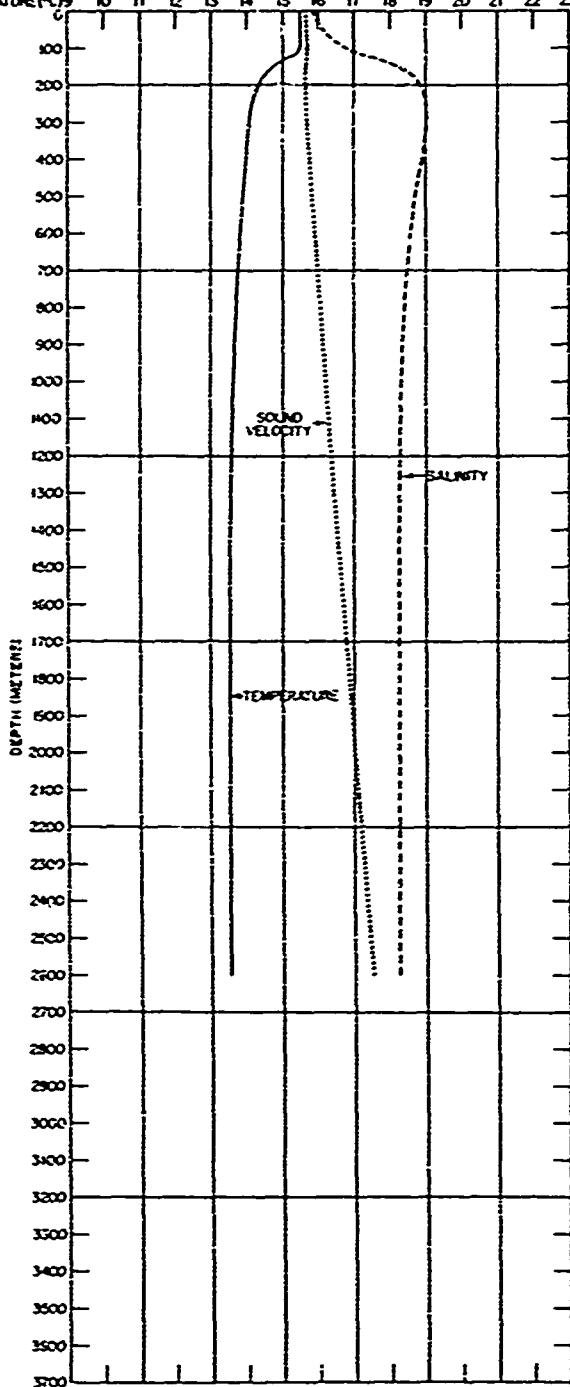
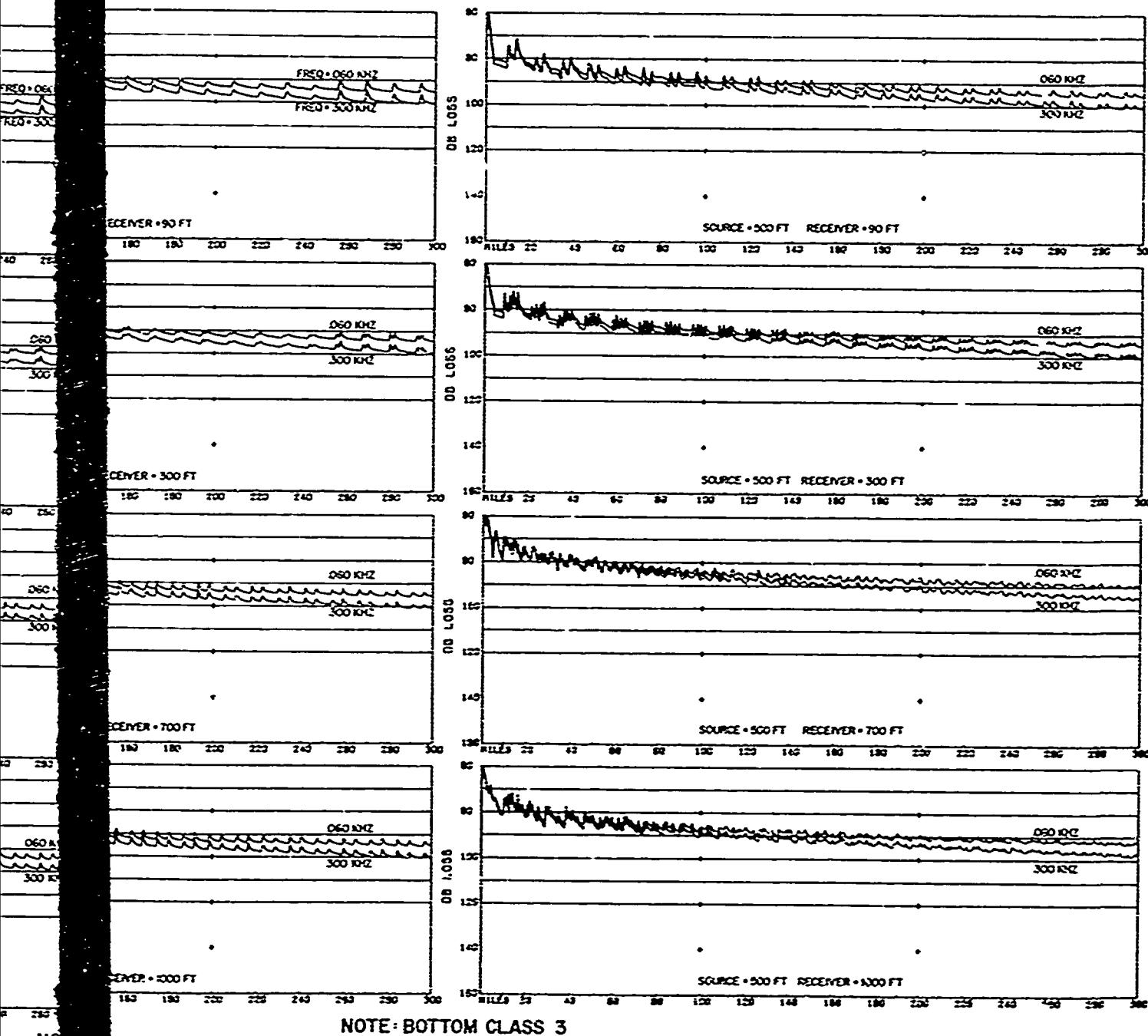


FIGURE 72. ACOUSTIC PROPAGATION LOSS, EASTERN MEDITERRANEAN SEA, WINTER



NOTE: BOTTOM CLASS 3

MEDITERRANEAN SEA, WINTER

FIGURE 72. PROPAGATION LOSS, EASTERN MEDITERRANEAN, WINTER

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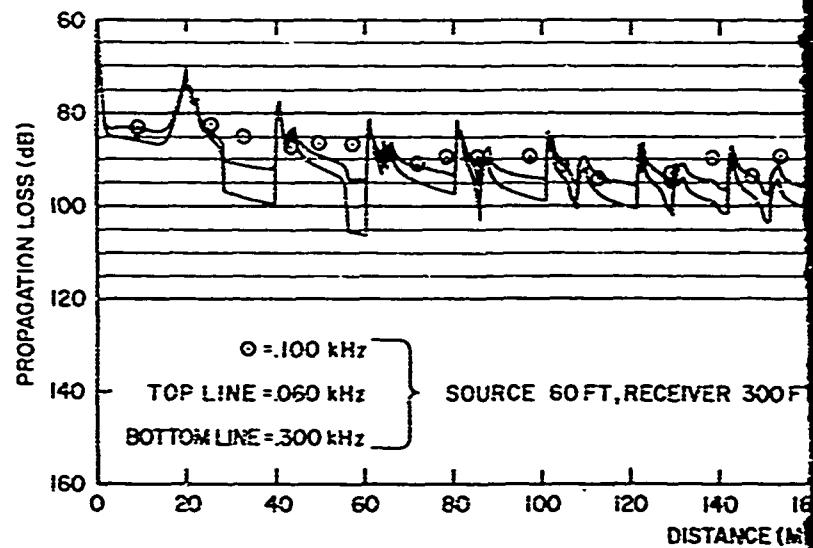
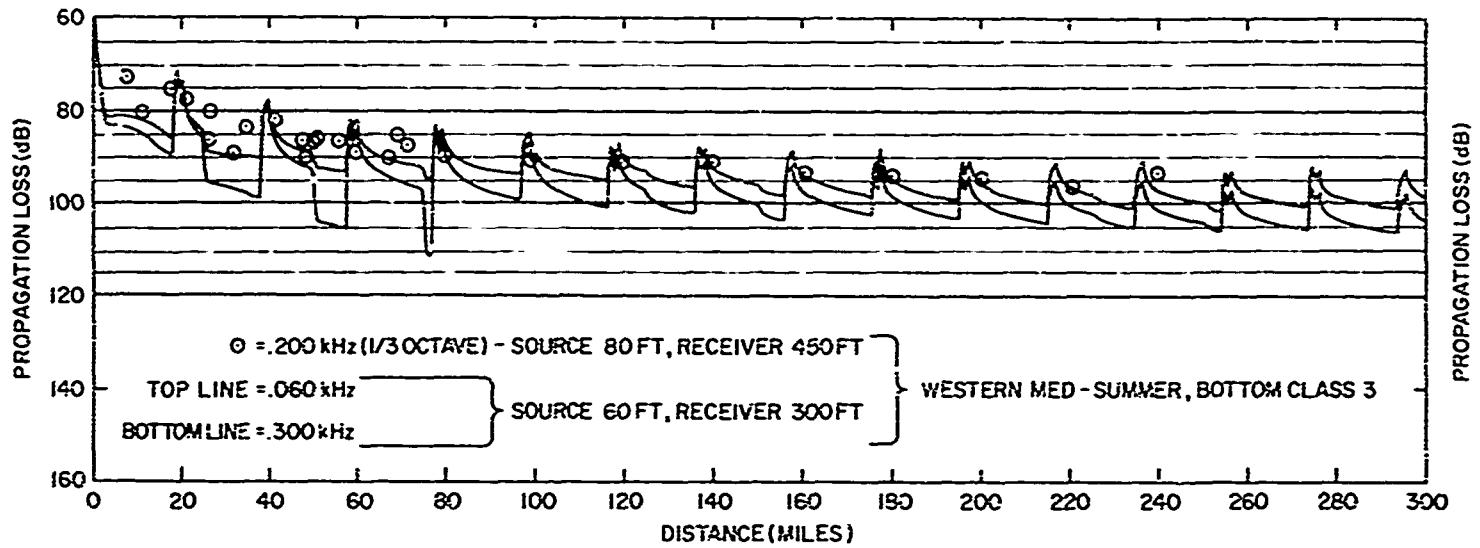
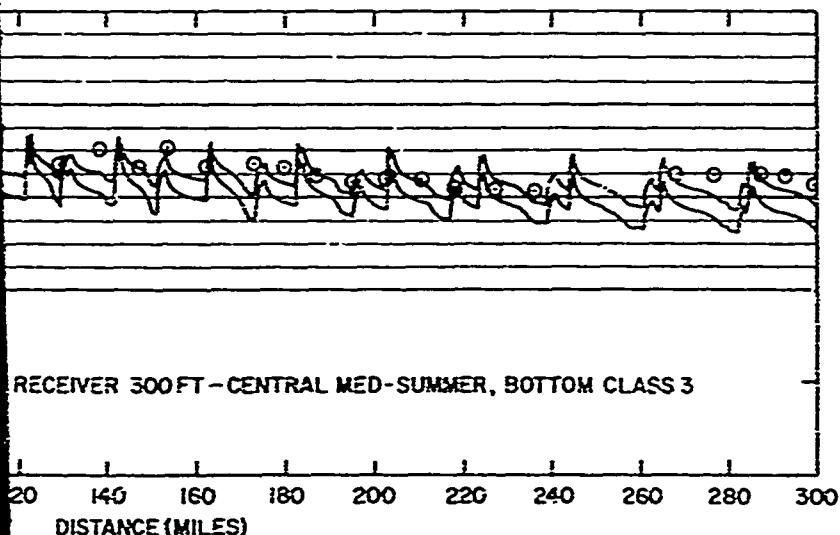
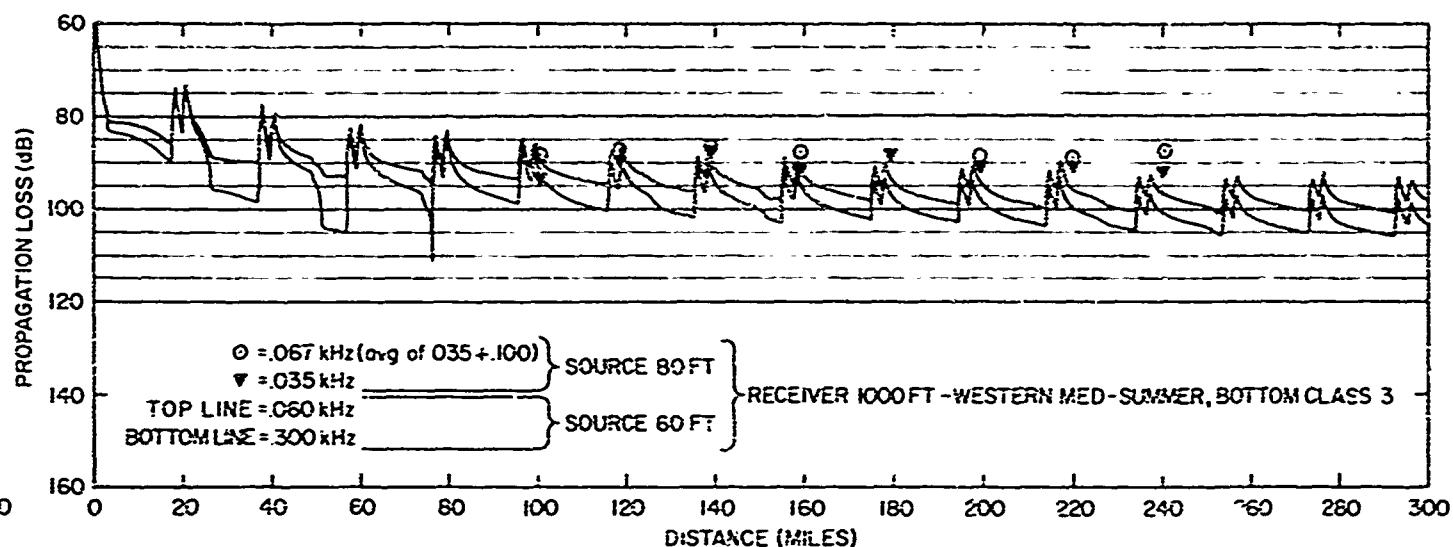


FIGURE 73. ACOUSTIC PROPAGATION LOSS (COMPARISON OF MEASUREMENTS)



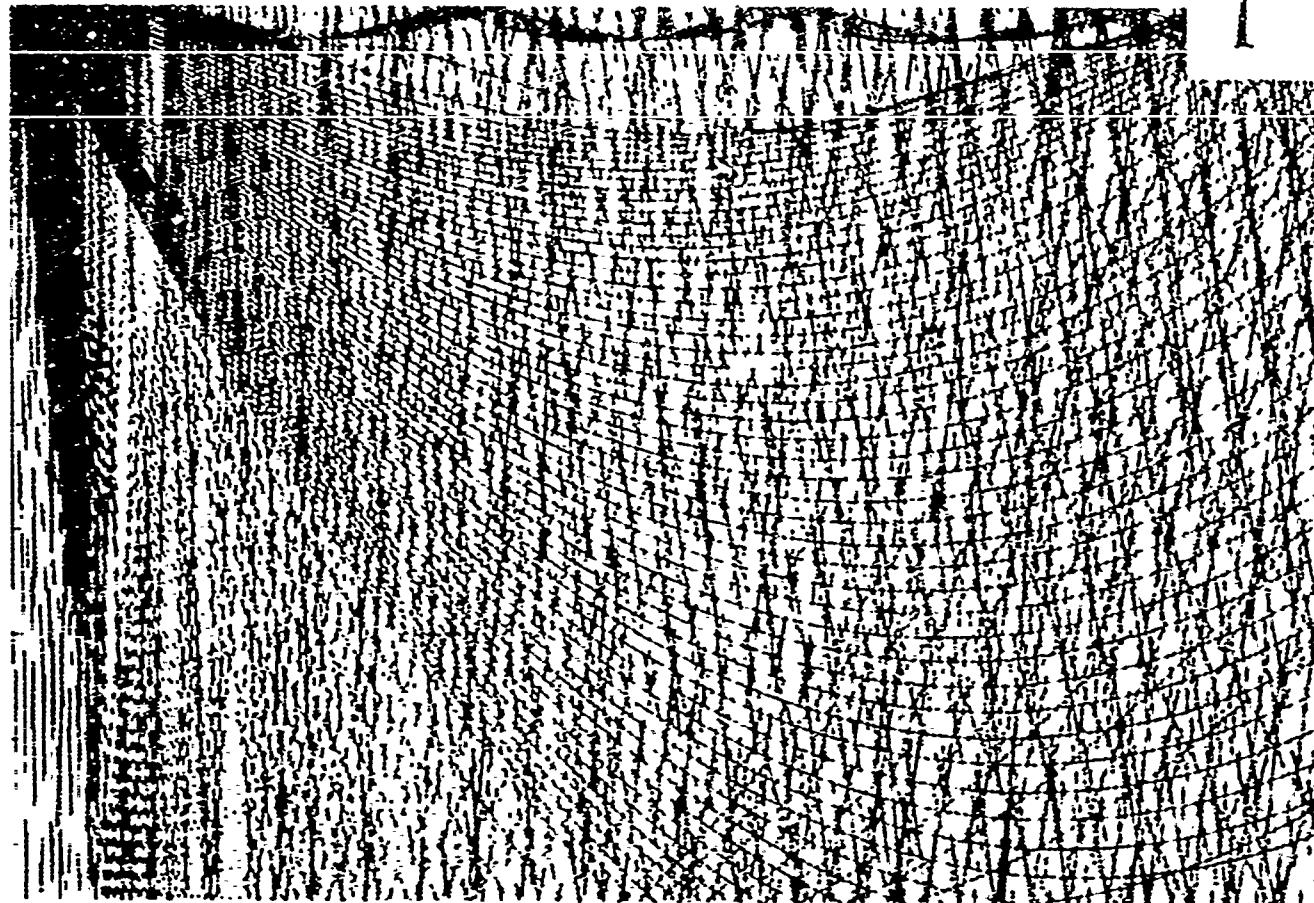
COMPARISON OF MEASUREMENTS WITH FNWC MODEL PREDICTIONS

FIGURE 73. PROPAGATION LOSS

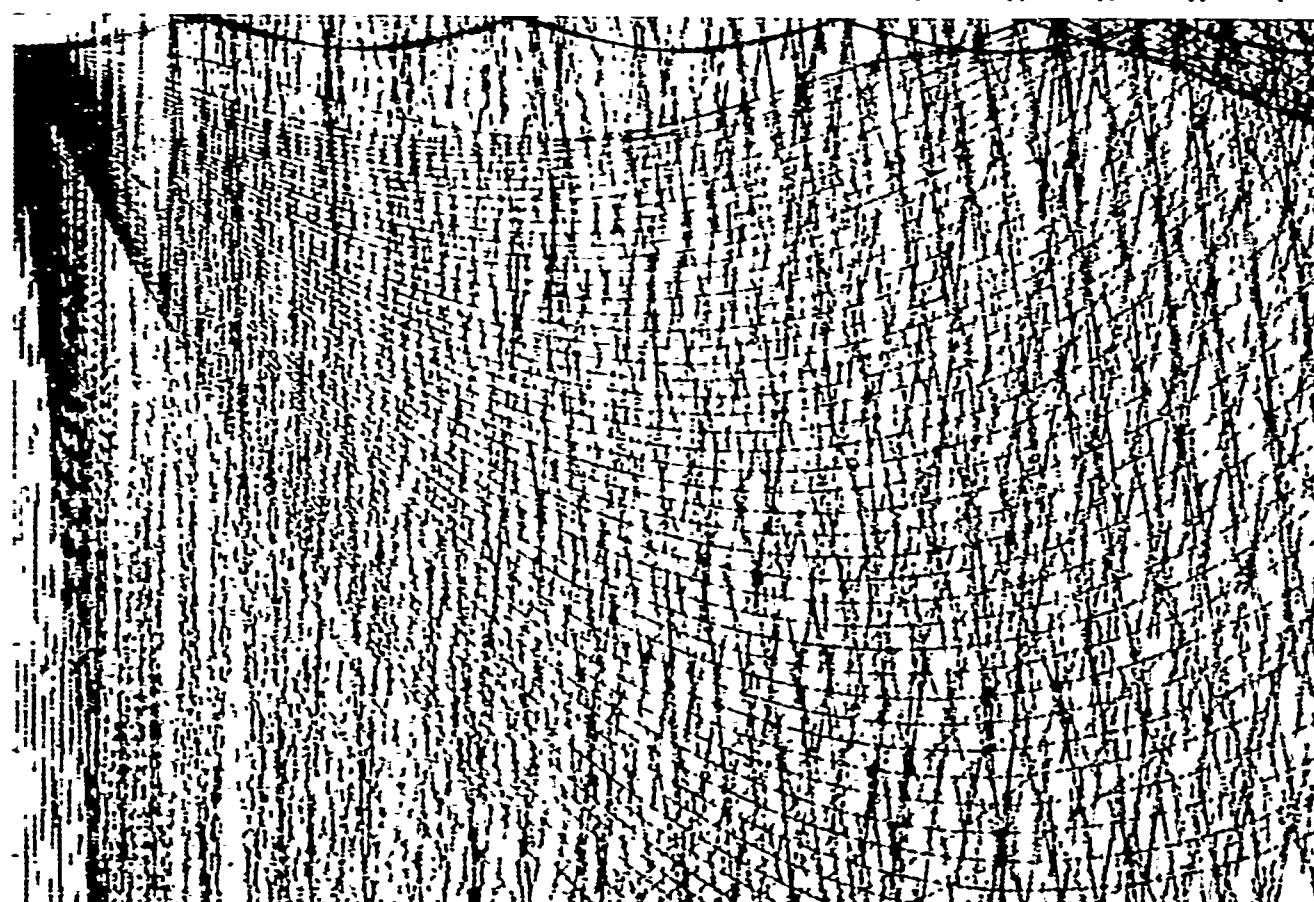
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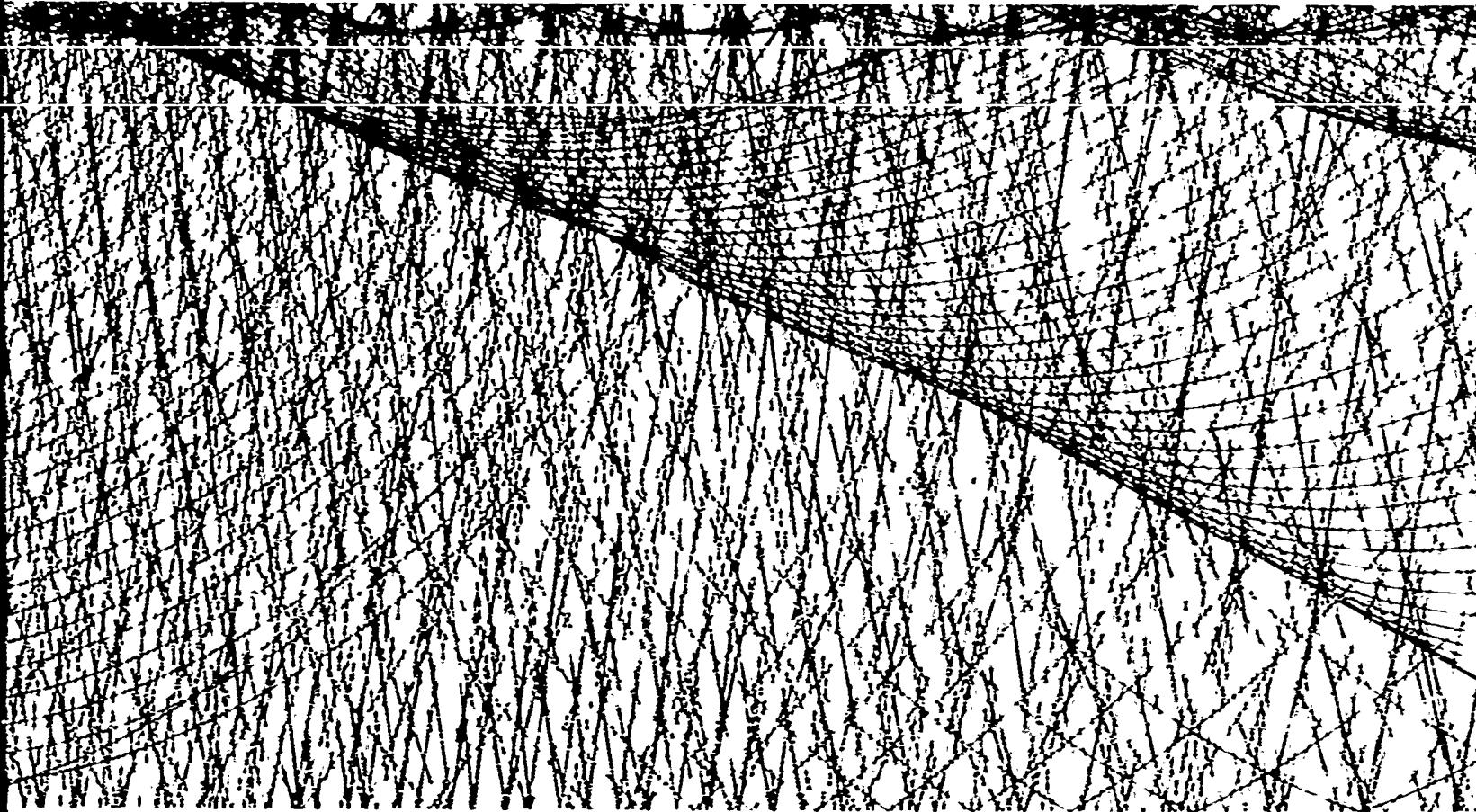


DOA: PAYS ONLY

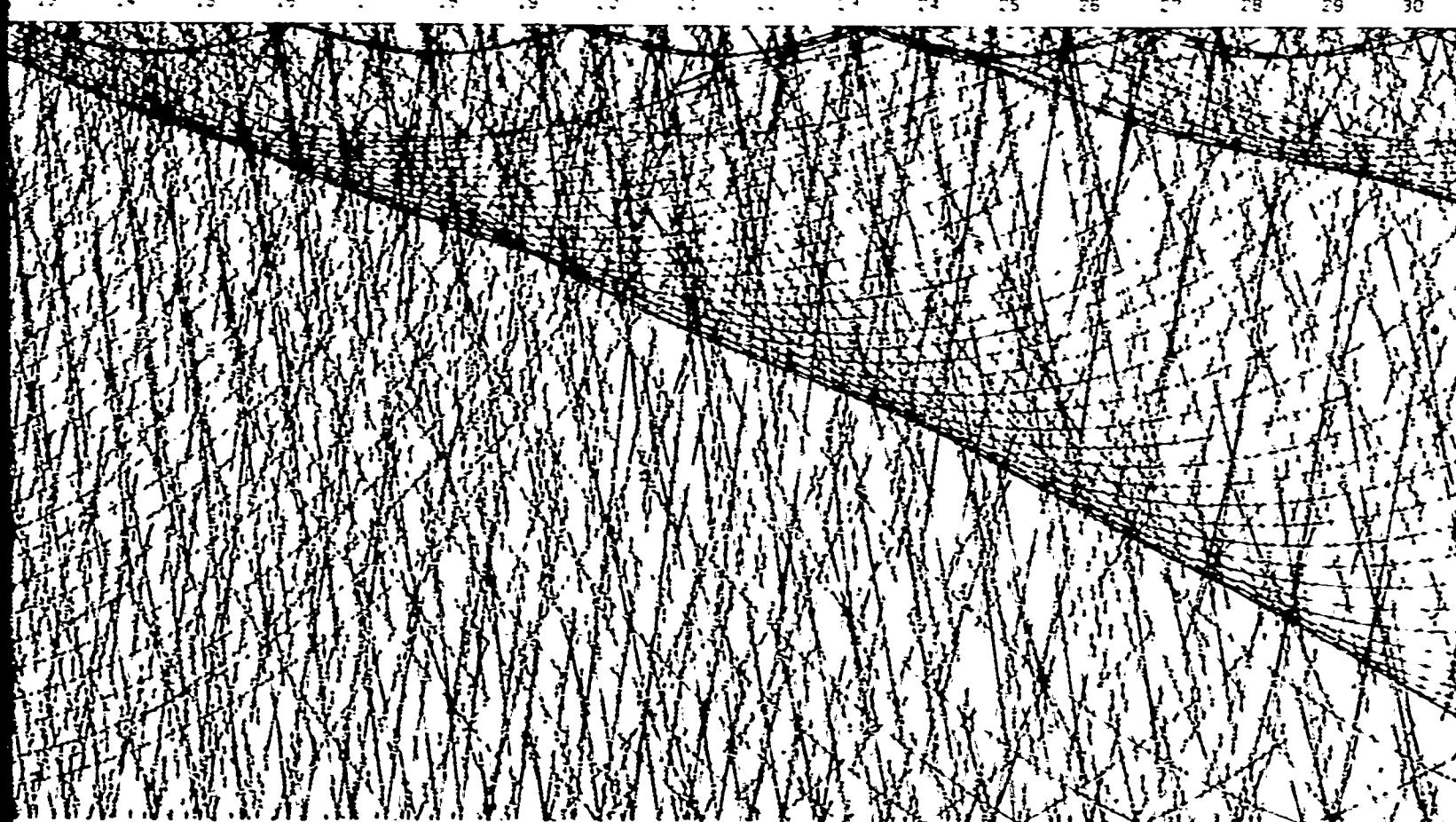
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14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29

2



13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30



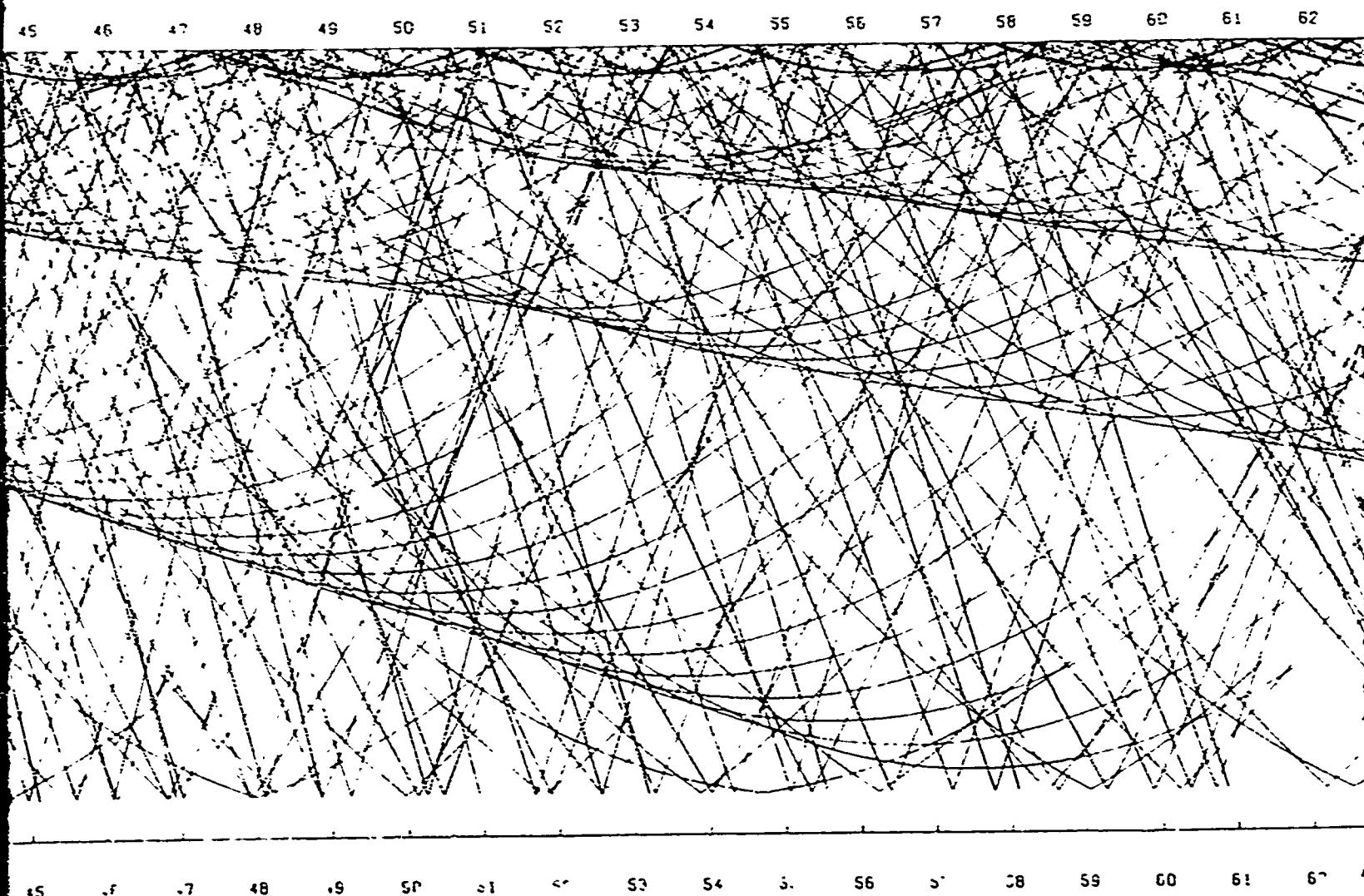
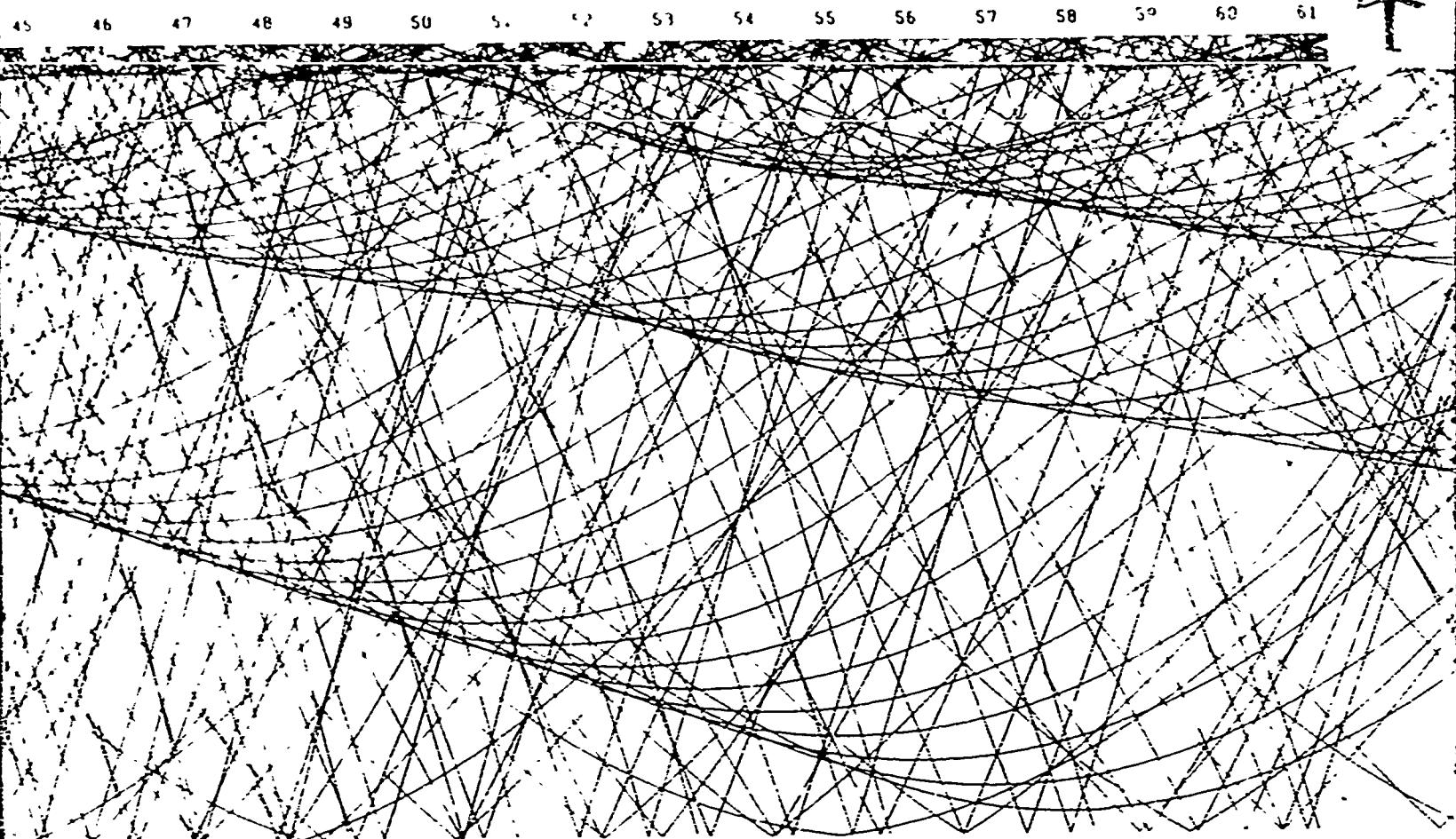
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9 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45

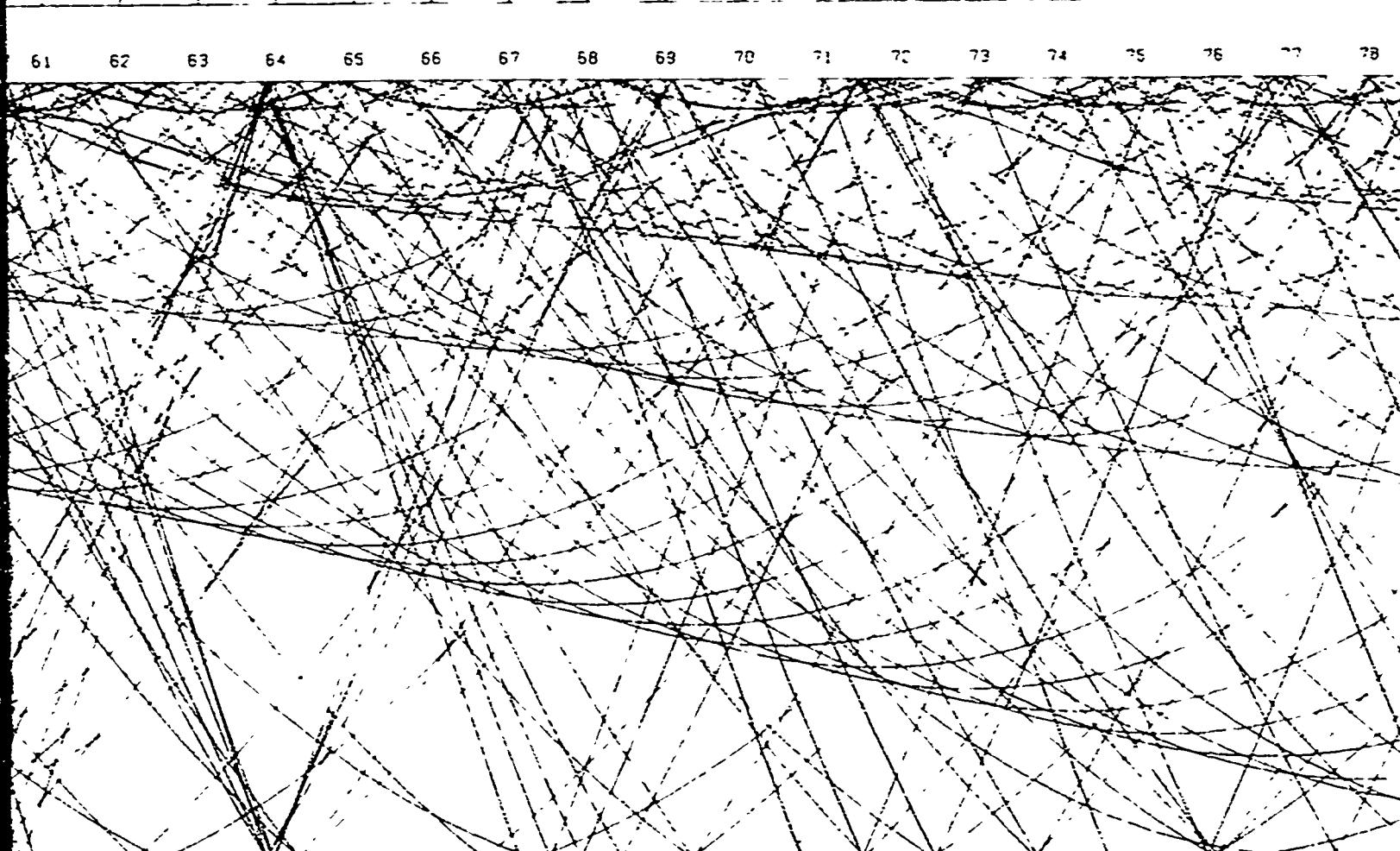
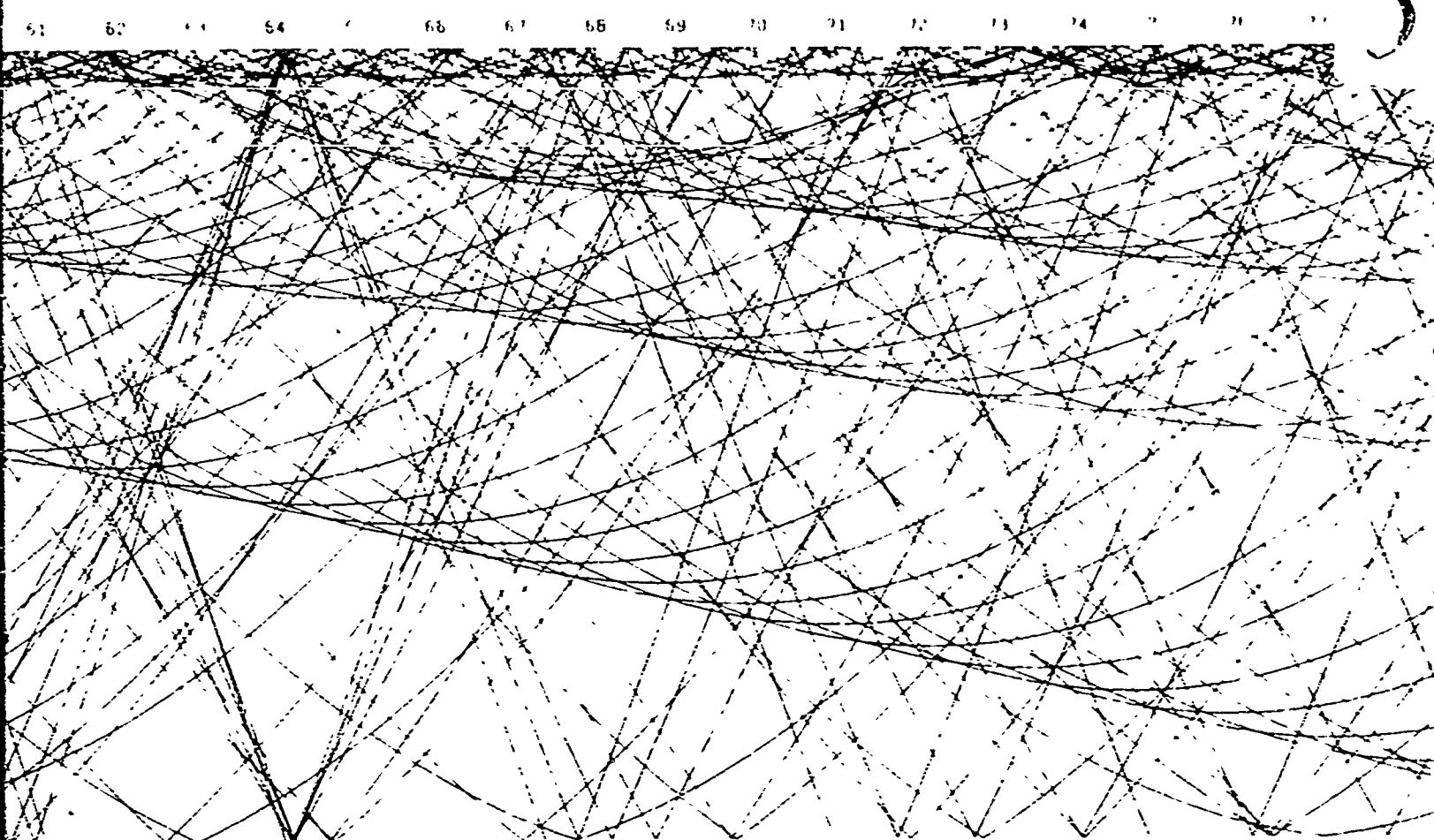
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29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45

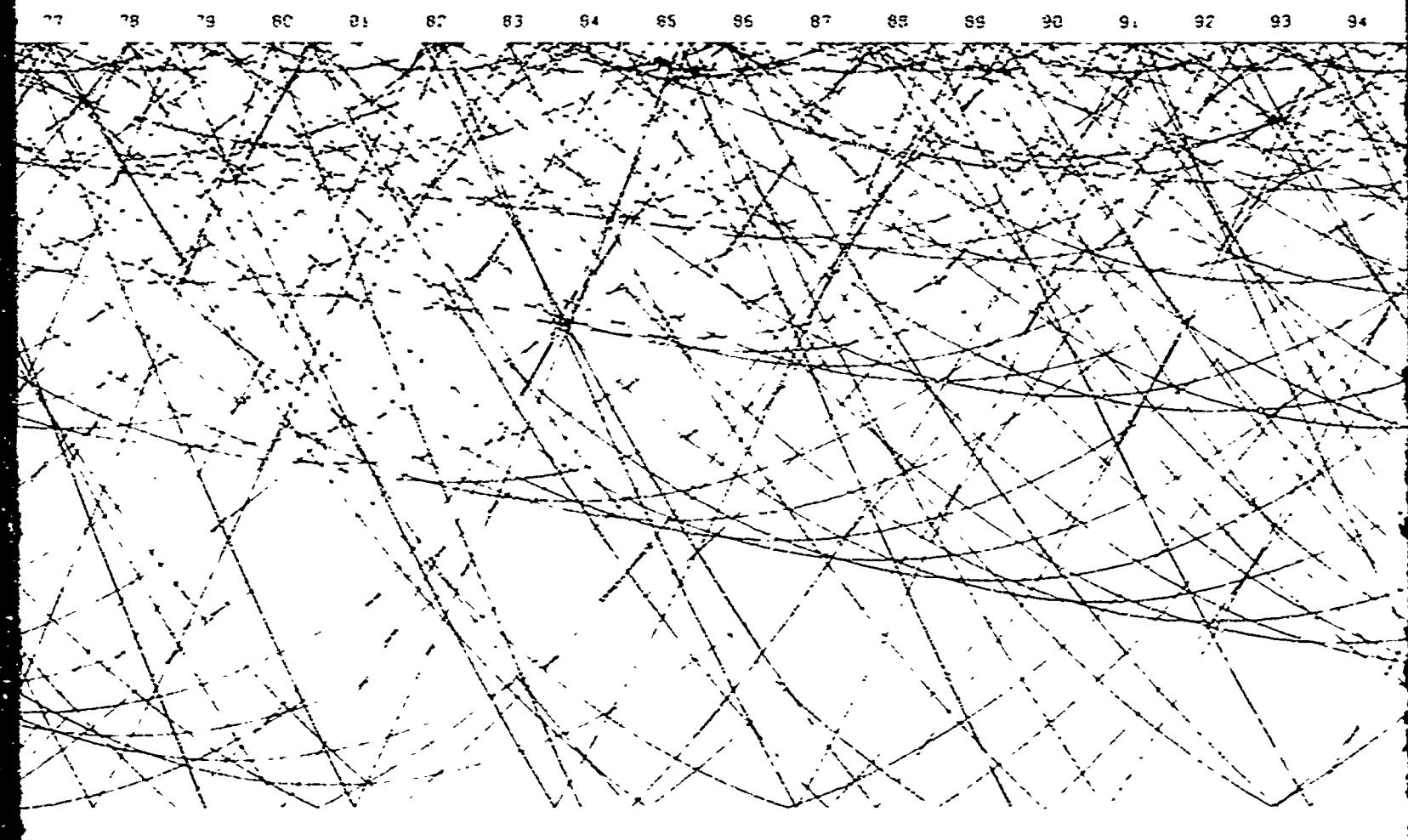
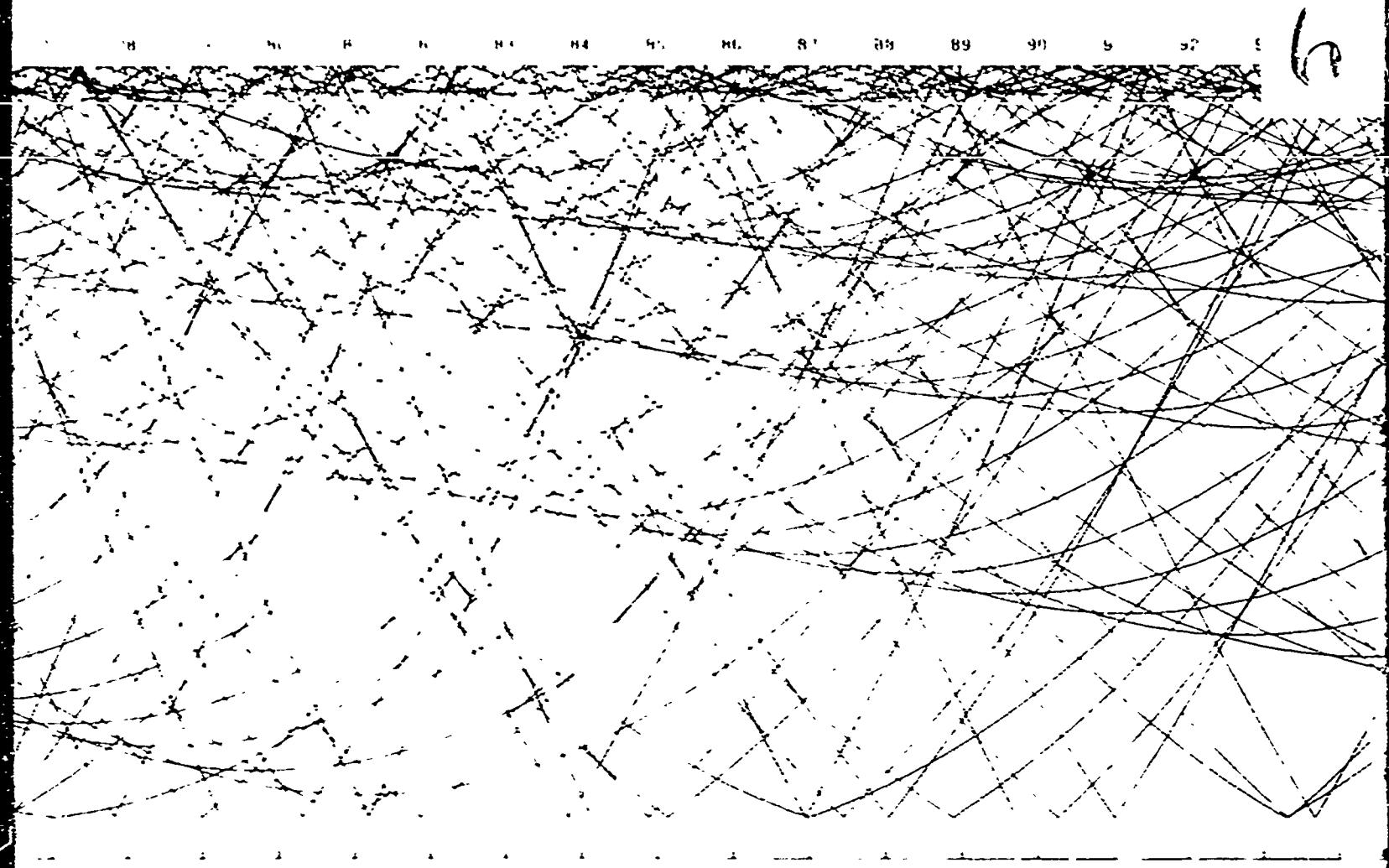
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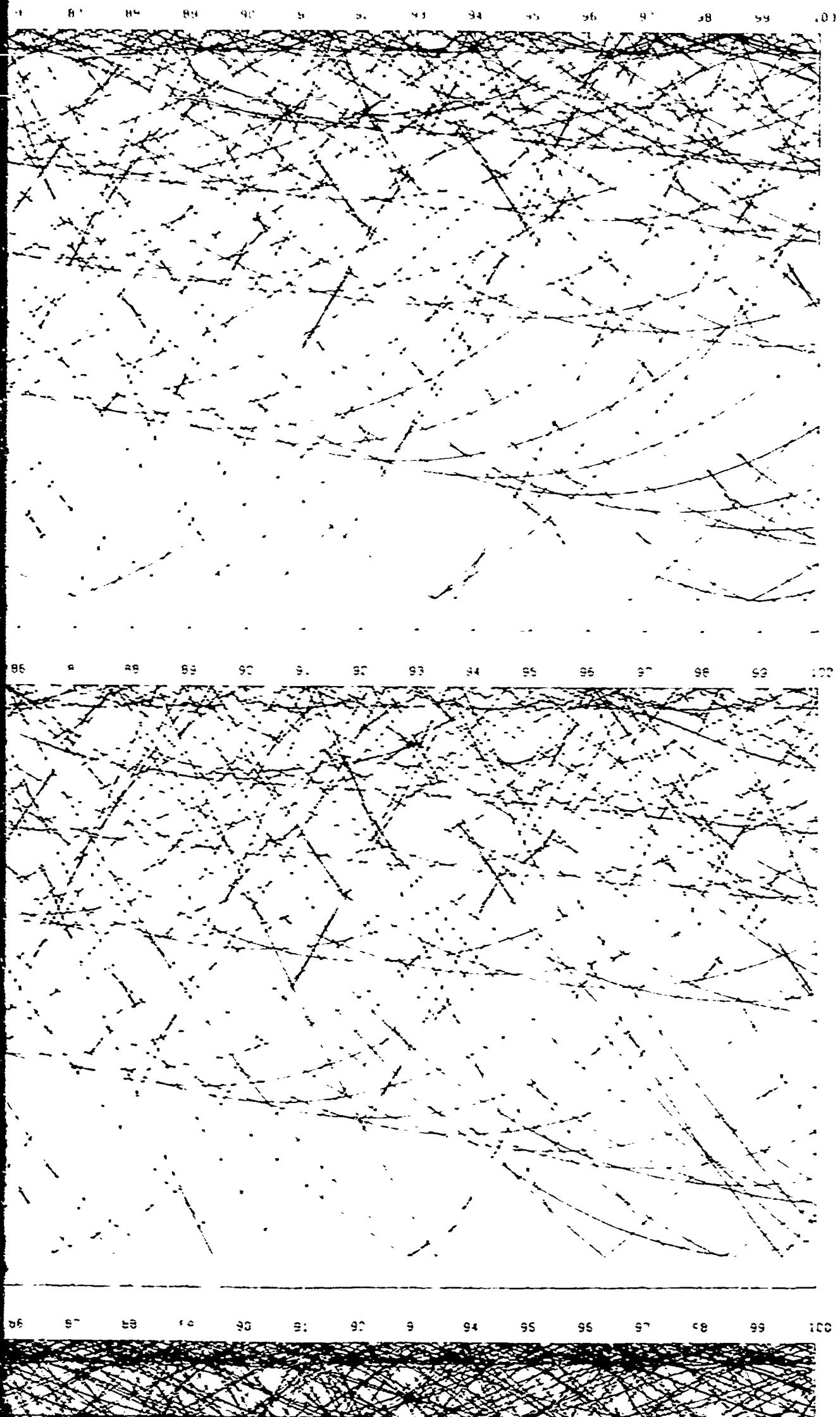
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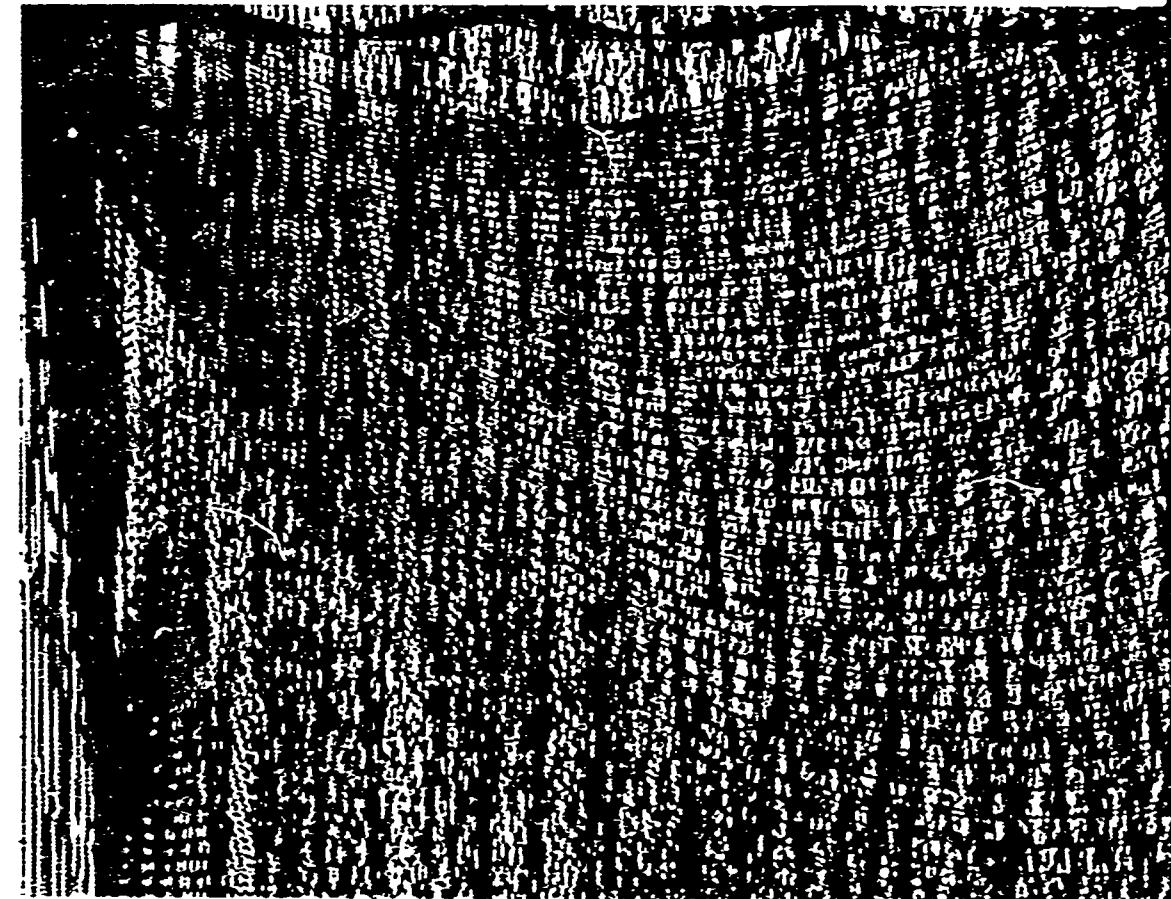


61 62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69 70 71 72 73 74 75 76 77 78



7<sup>o</sup> 78 79 80 81 82 83 84 85 86 87 88 89 90 91 92 93 94





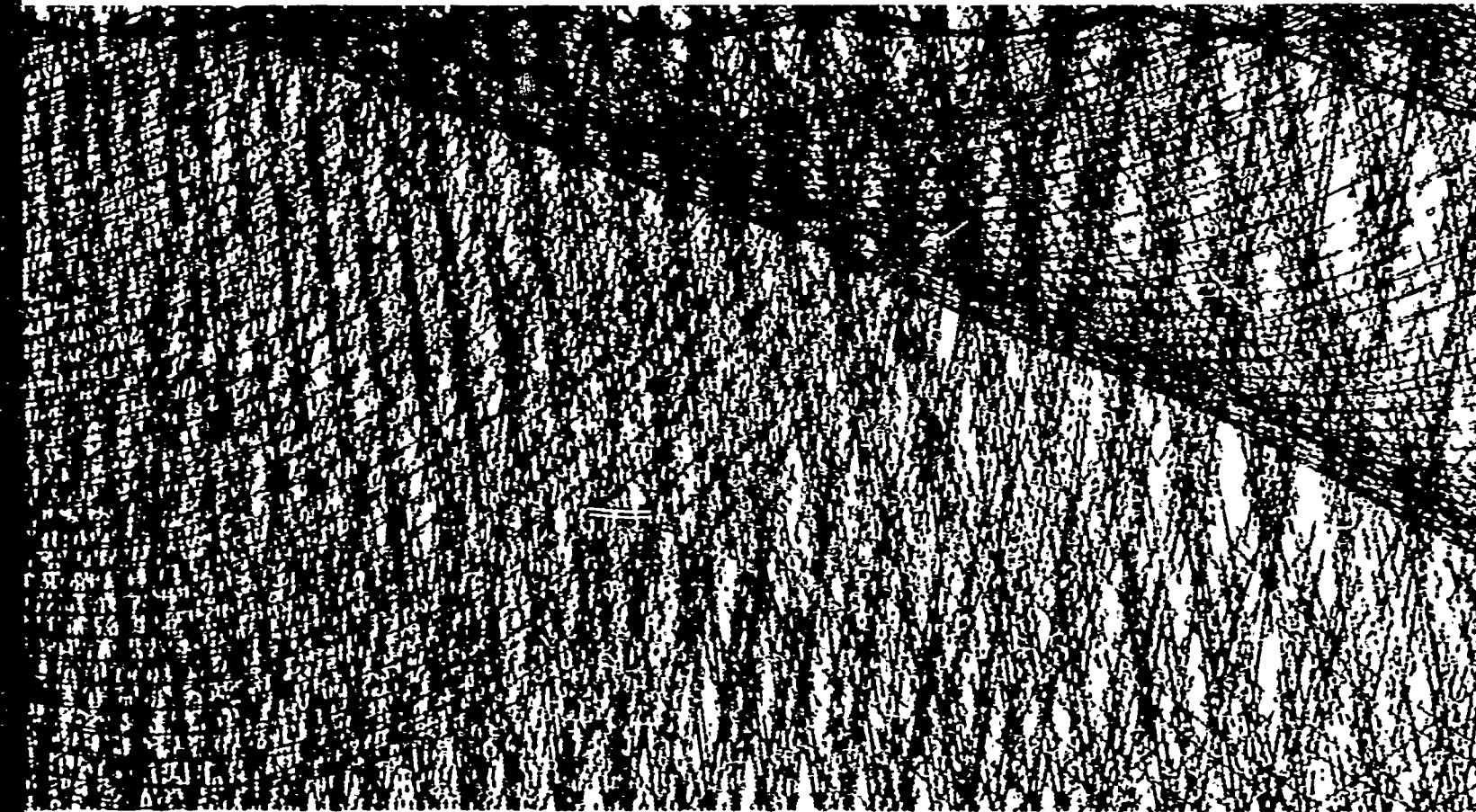
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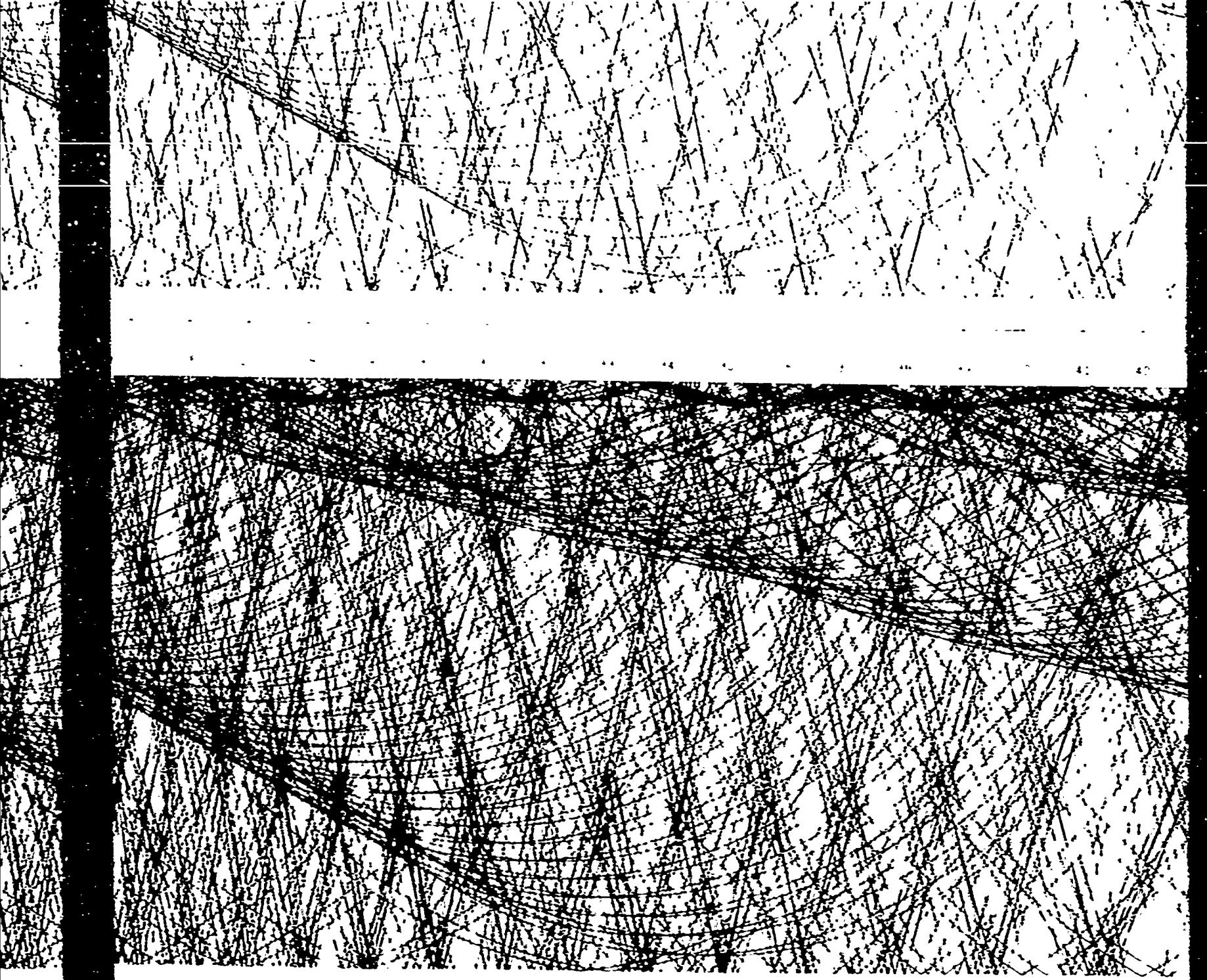


2 200 200 200 200 200 200 PHZ  
200 200 200 200 200 200 PHZ

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11





50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59

60 61 62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69

70

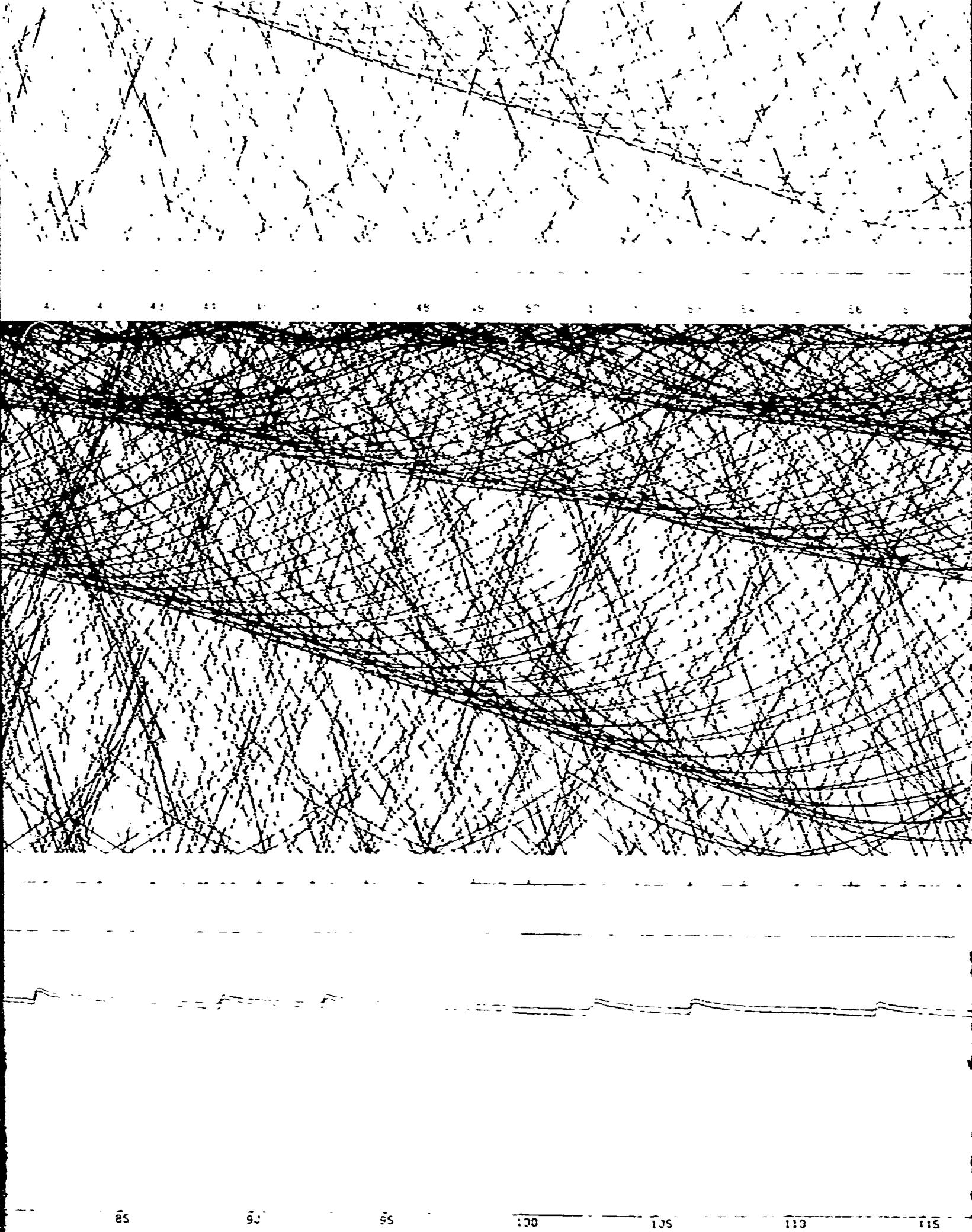
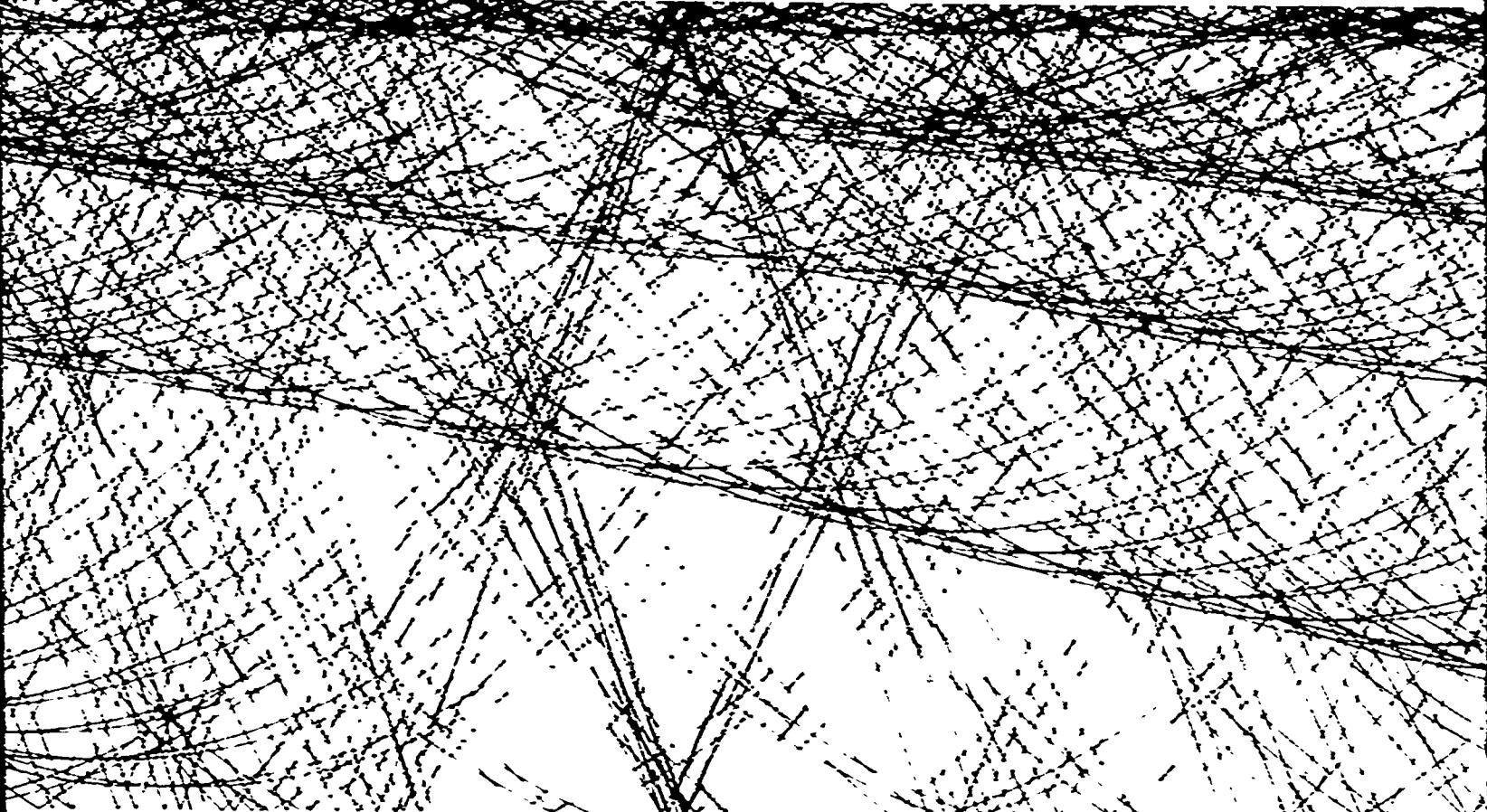


FIGURE 74. RAY PATHS AND TRANSMISSION LOSS -- EASTERN MEDITERRANEAN WINTER

11



115

120

125

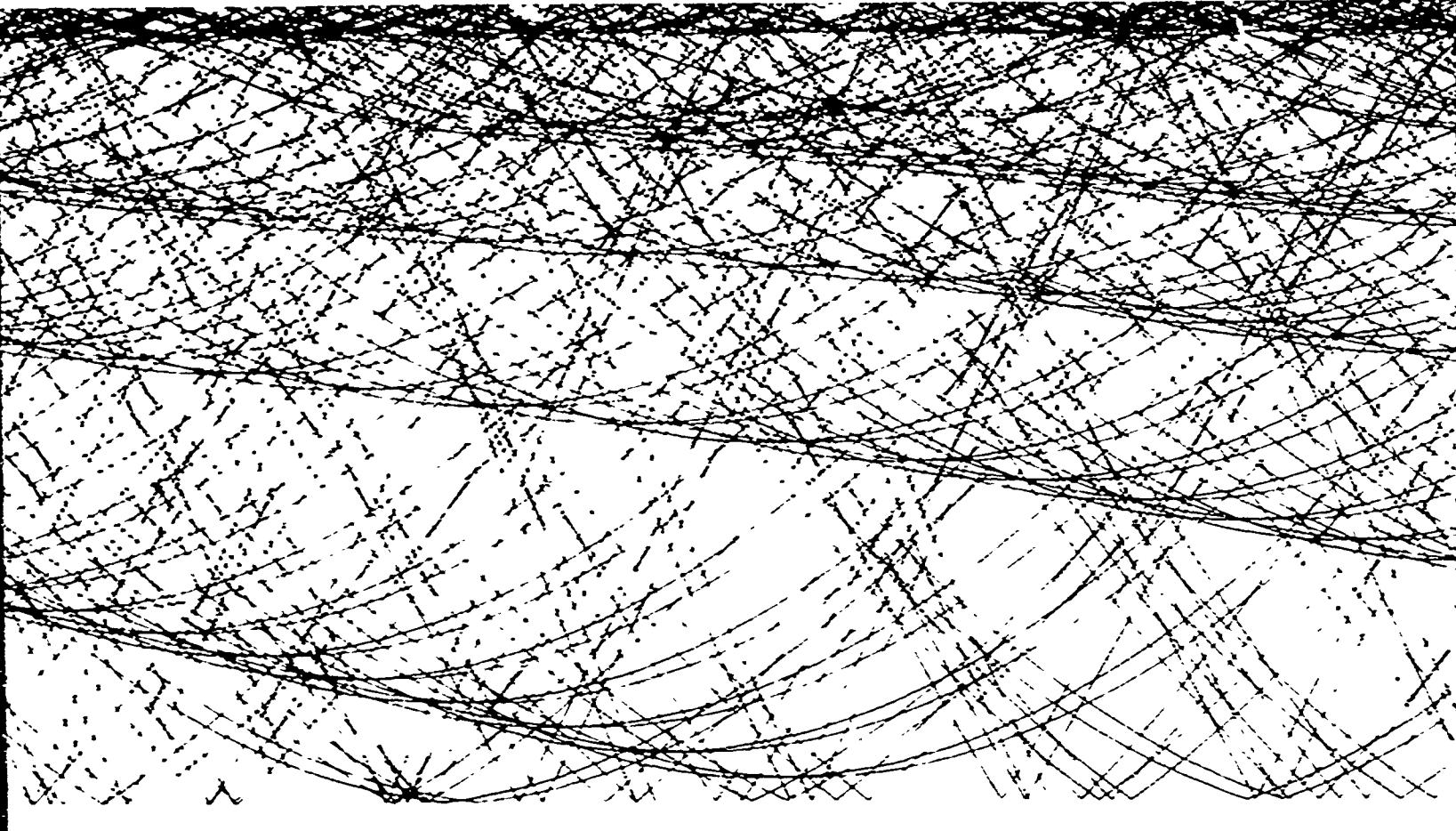
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135

140

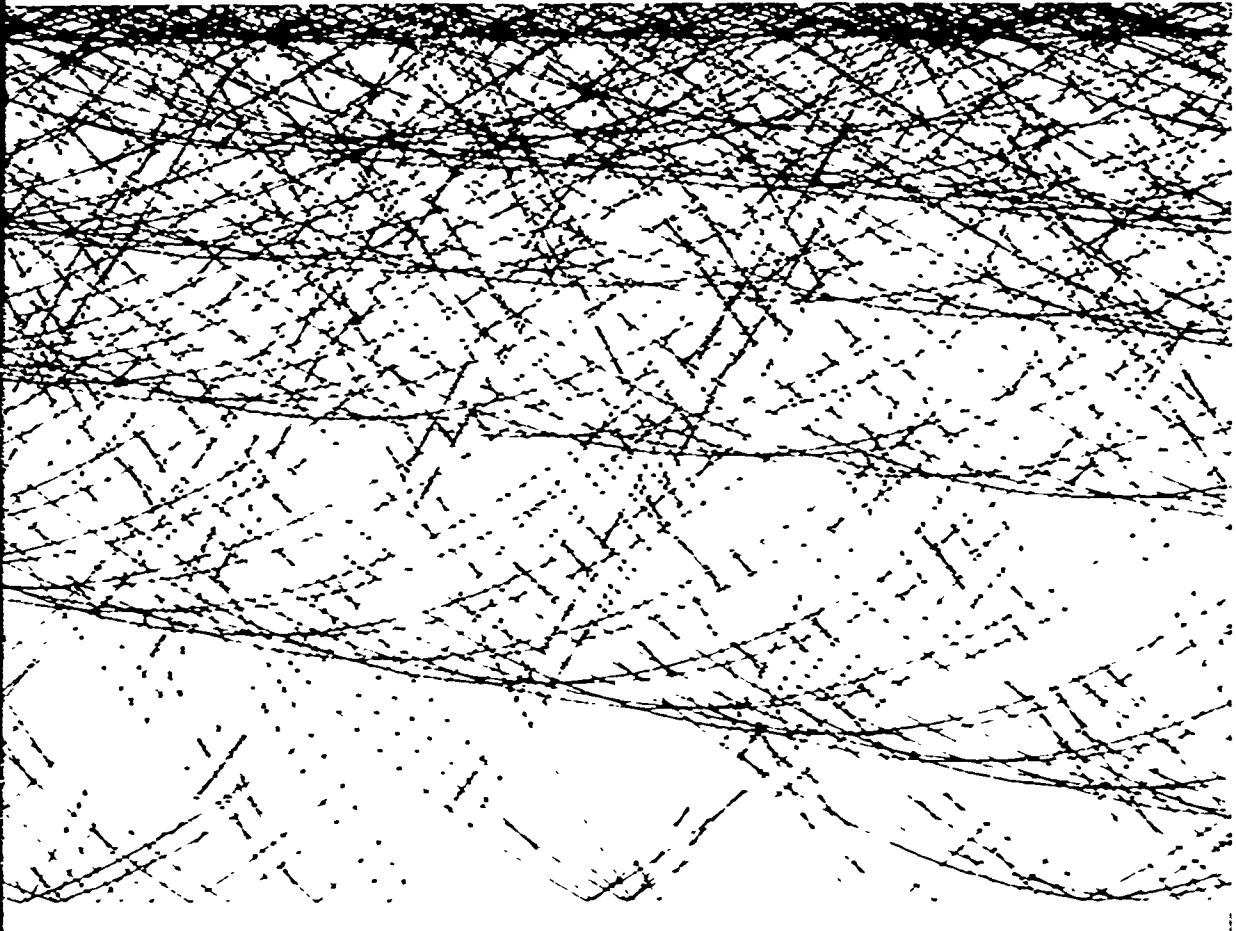
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12



.25 .50 .55 .60 .65 .70 .75

13



175

180

185

190

195

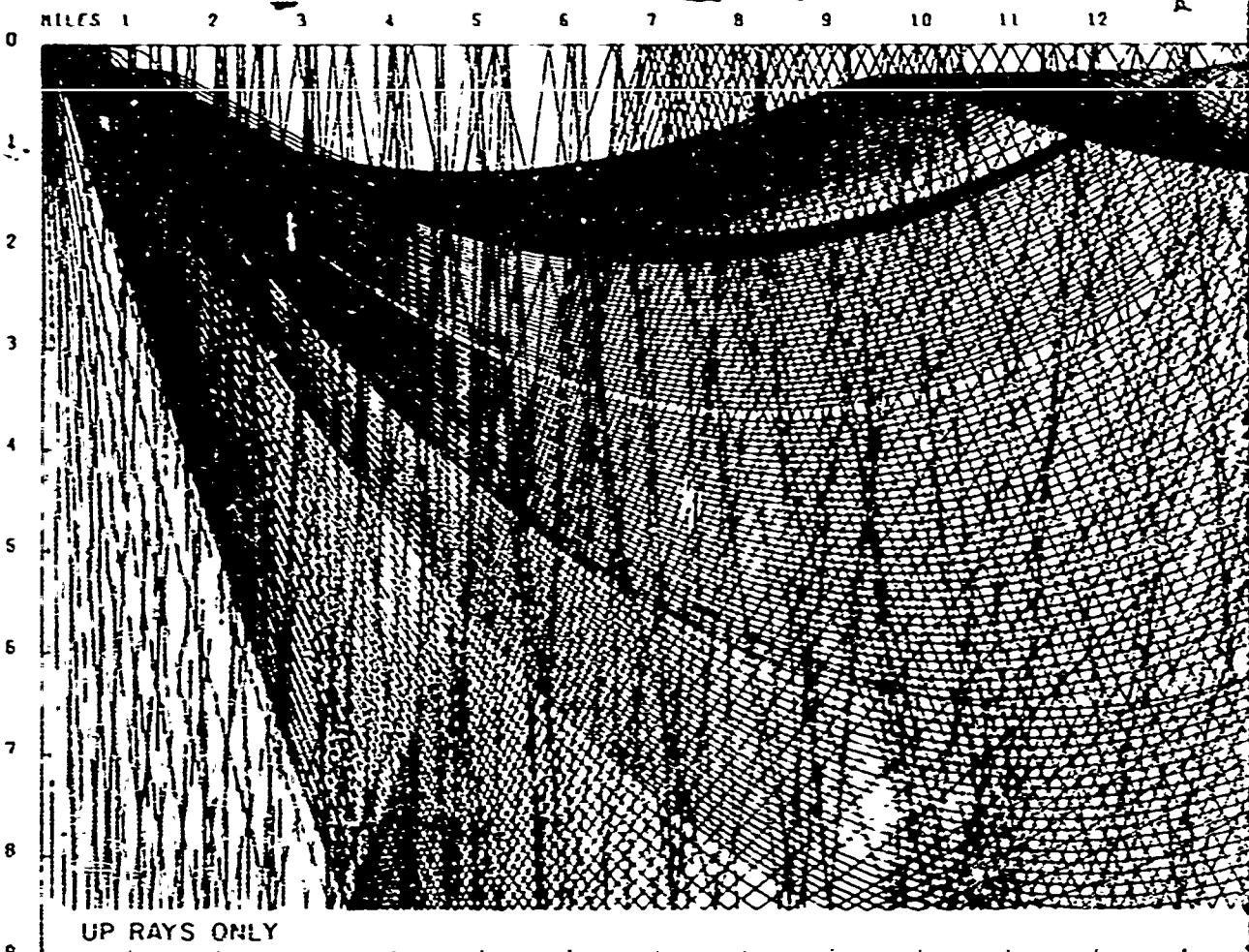
200

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14

A

DEPTH (THOUSANDS OF FEET)

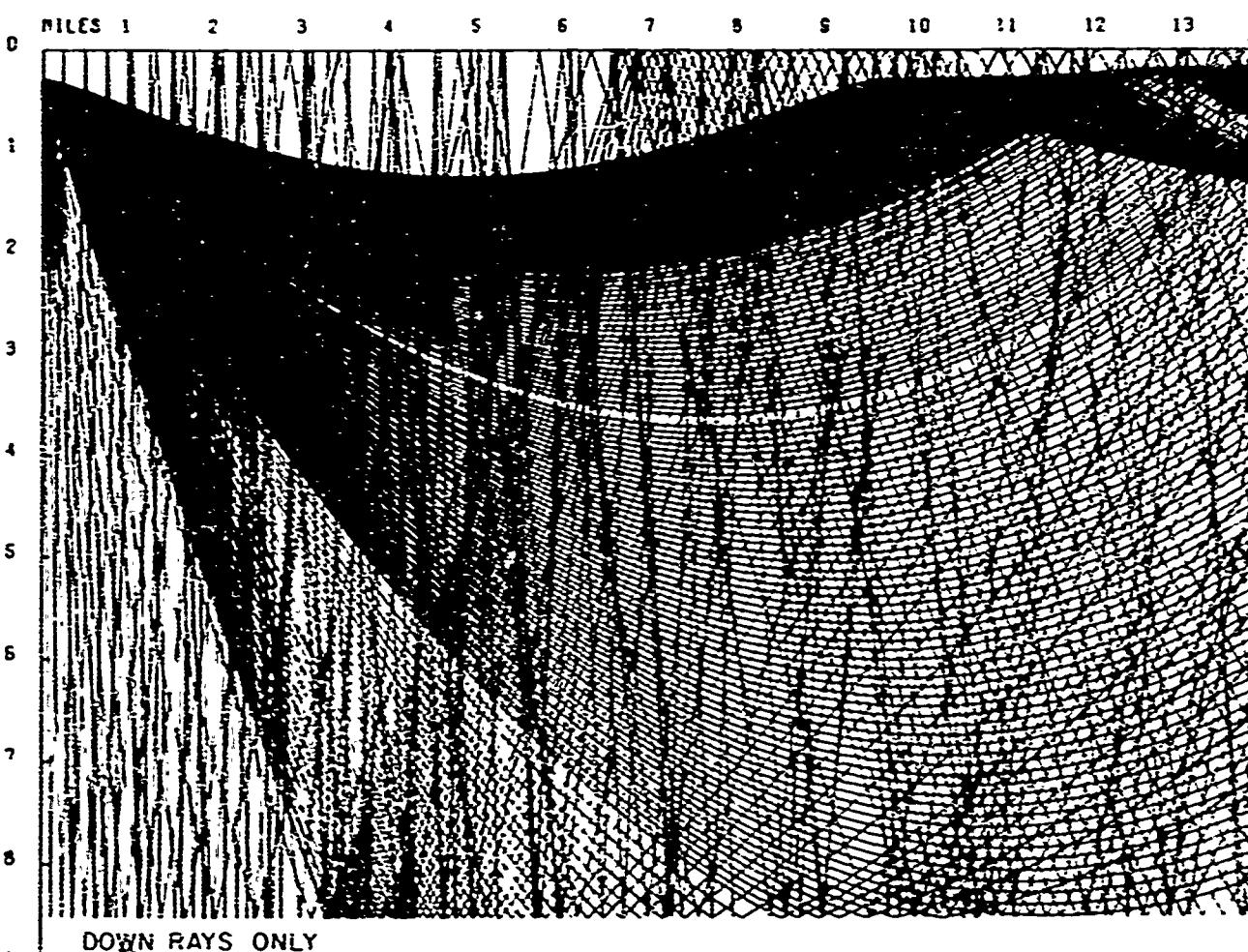


FNHC 69-87 EAST MED SUM

INITIAL DEPTH = 3

B

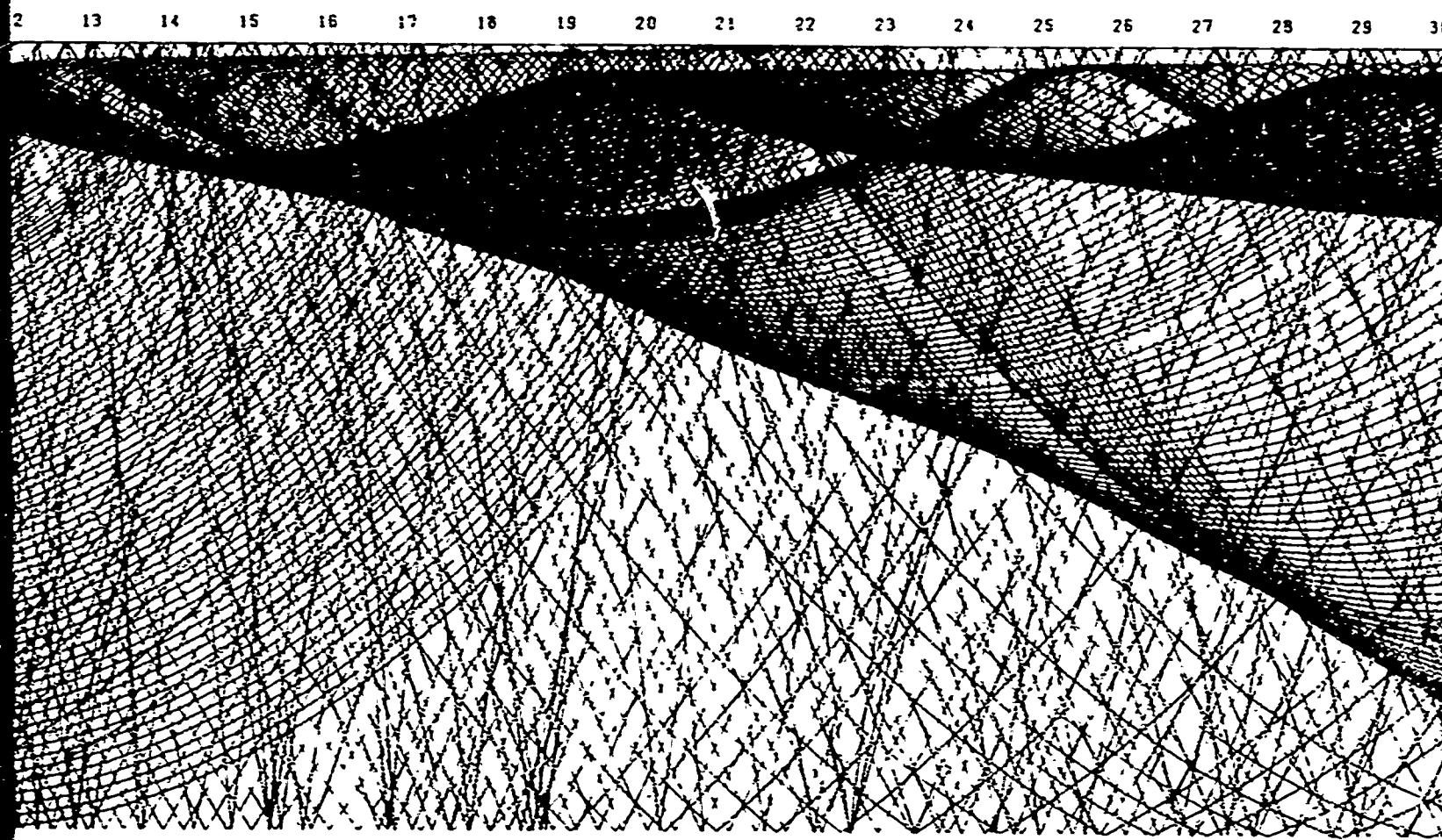
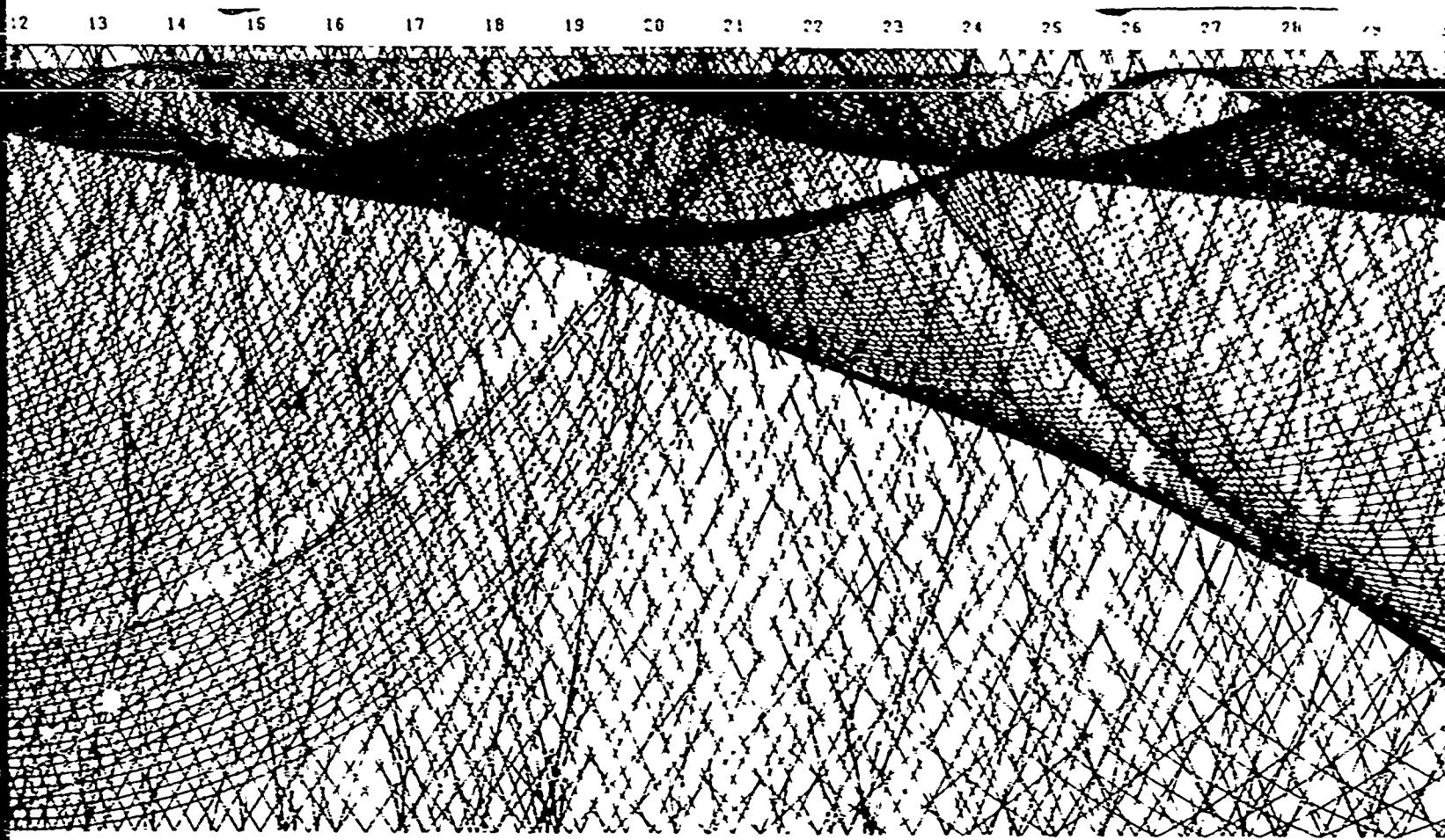
DEPTH (THOUSANDS OF FEET)



FNHC 69-87 EAST MED SUM

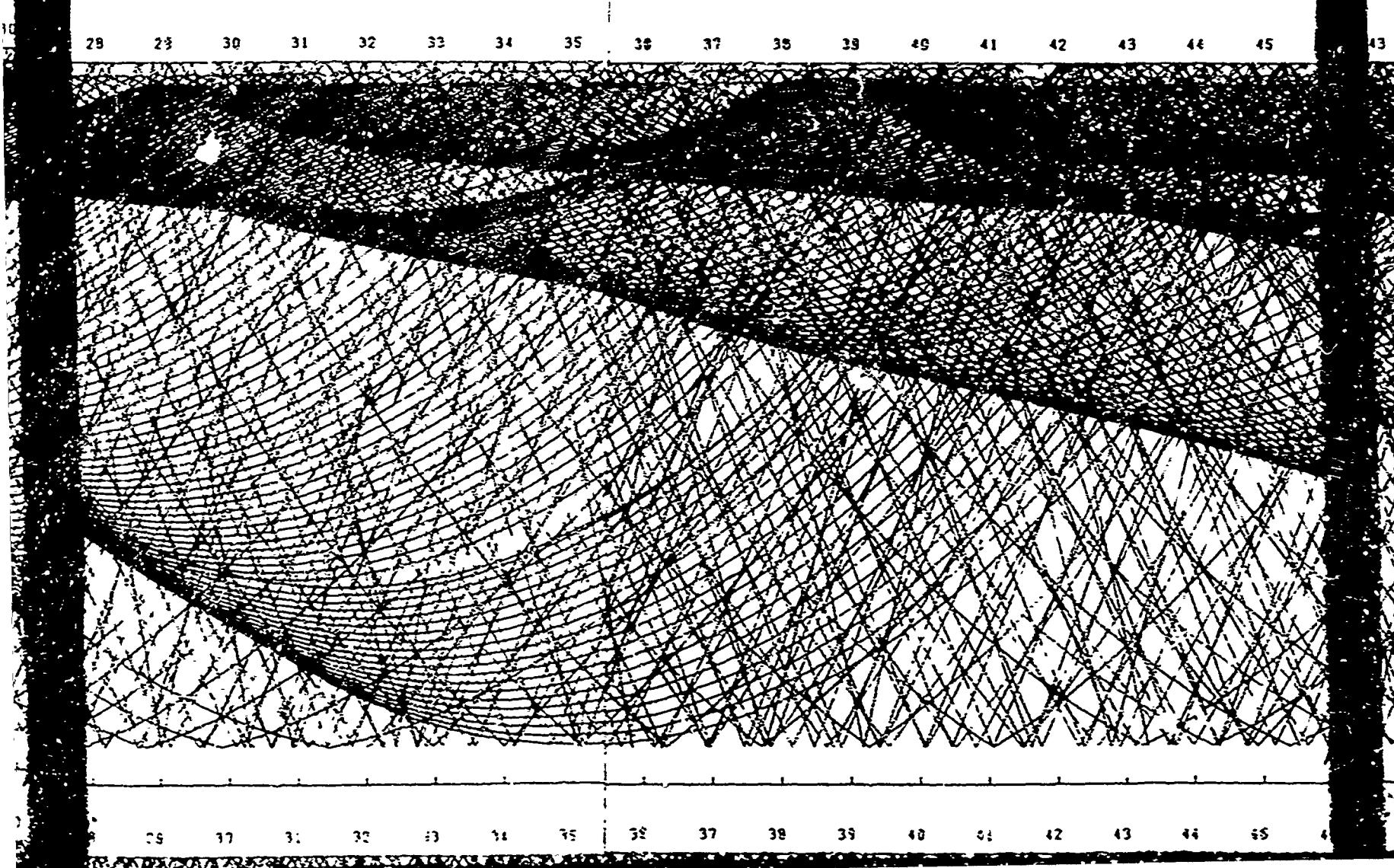
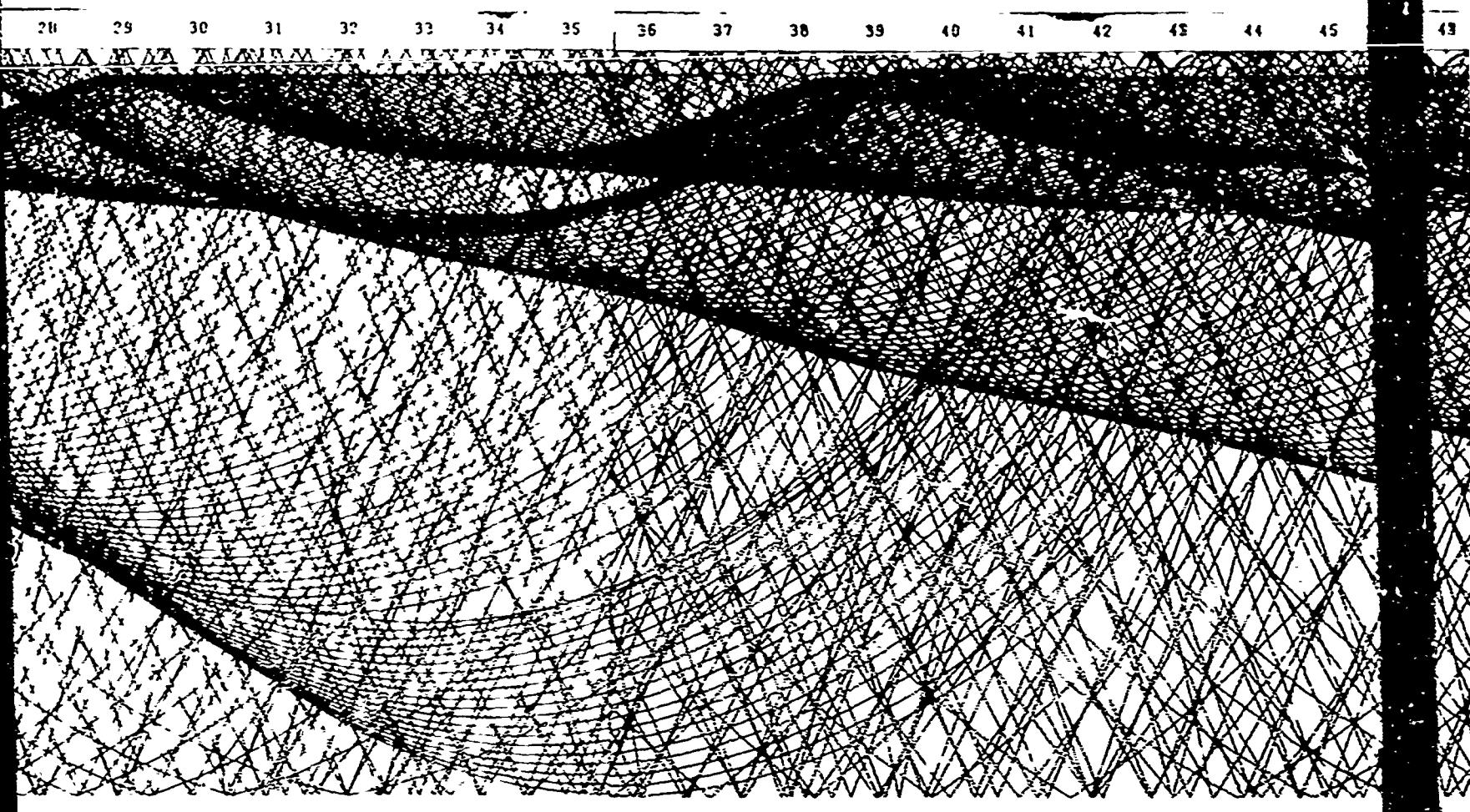
INITIAL DEPTH = 3

2

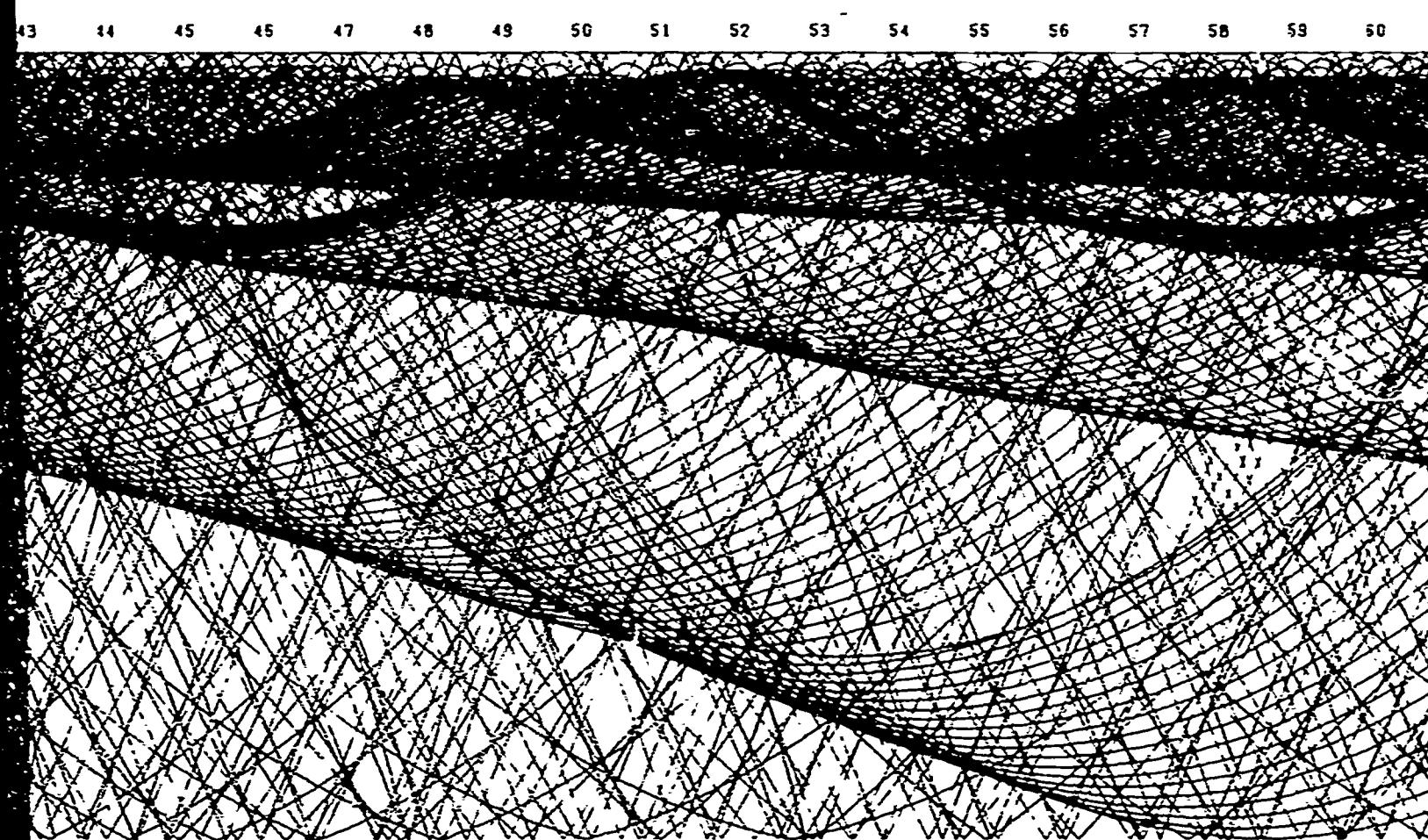
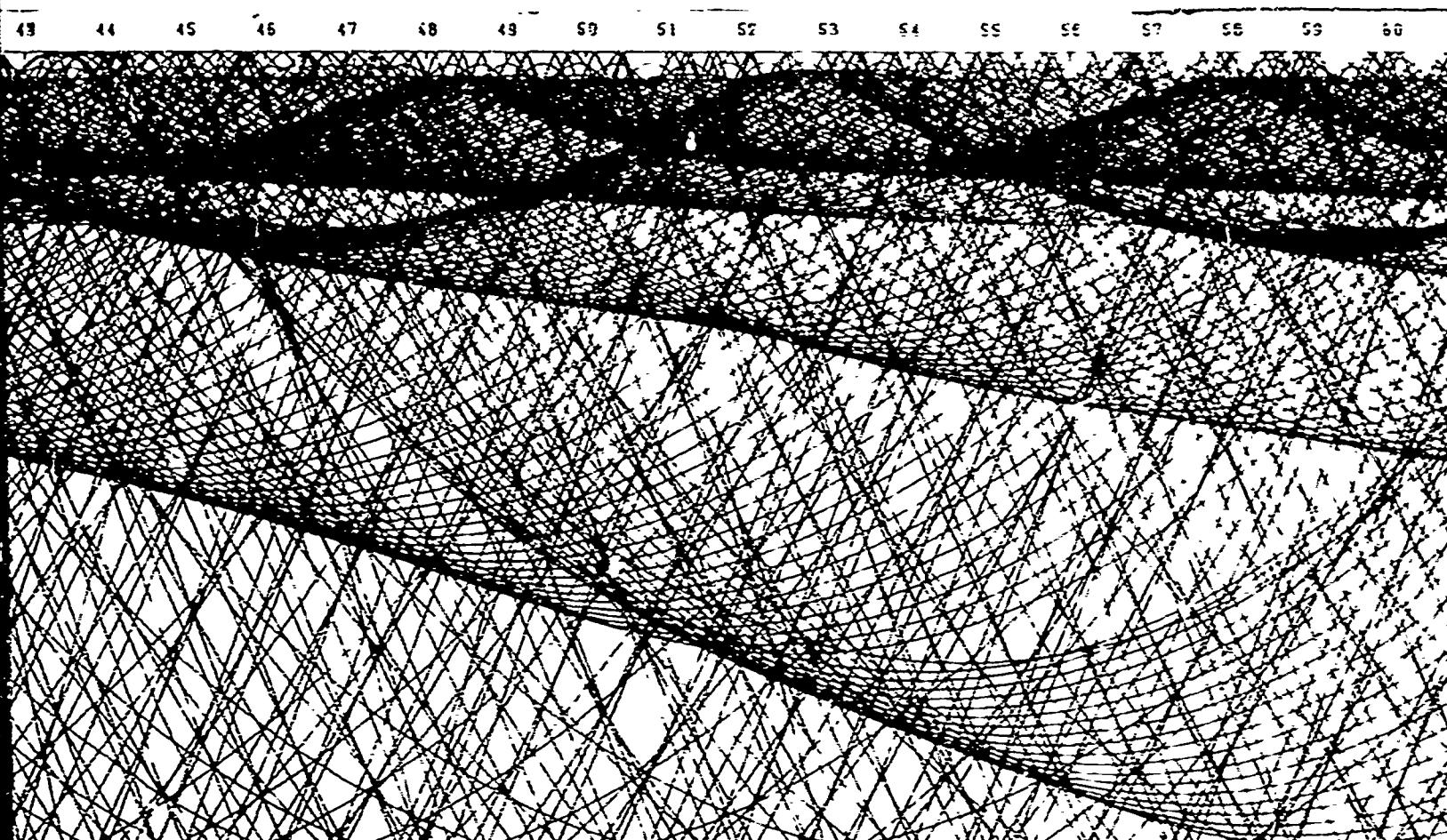


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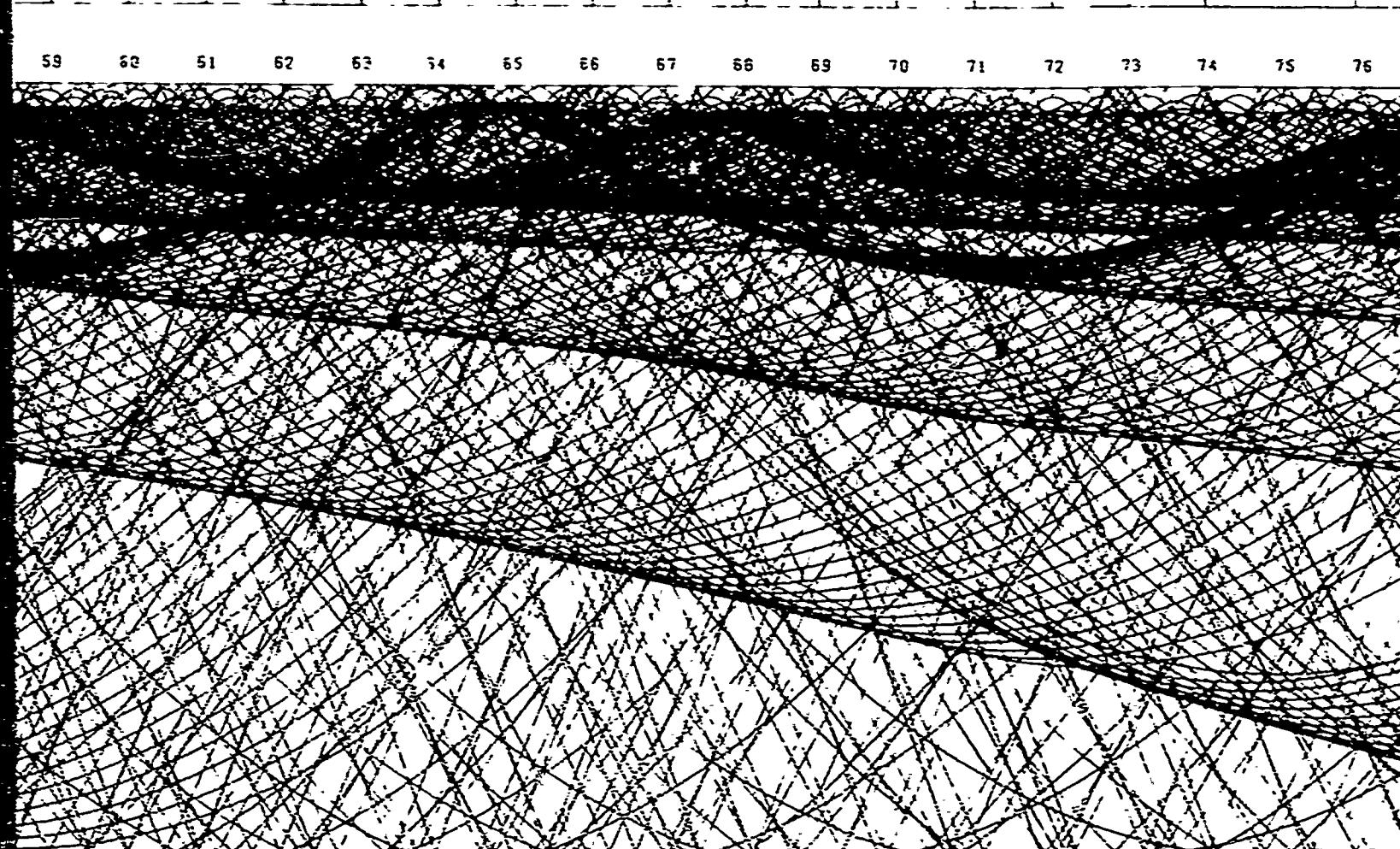
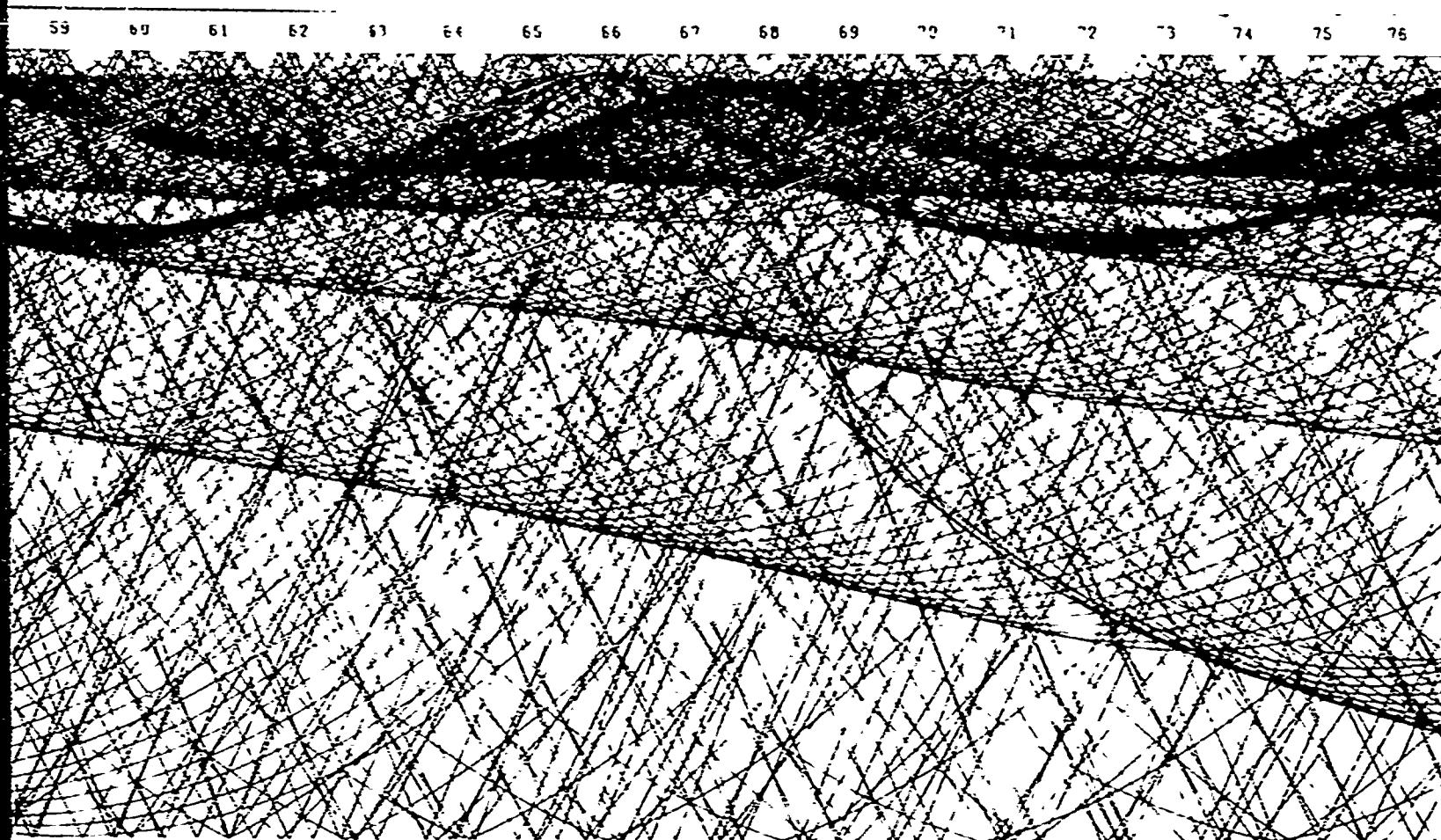
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4



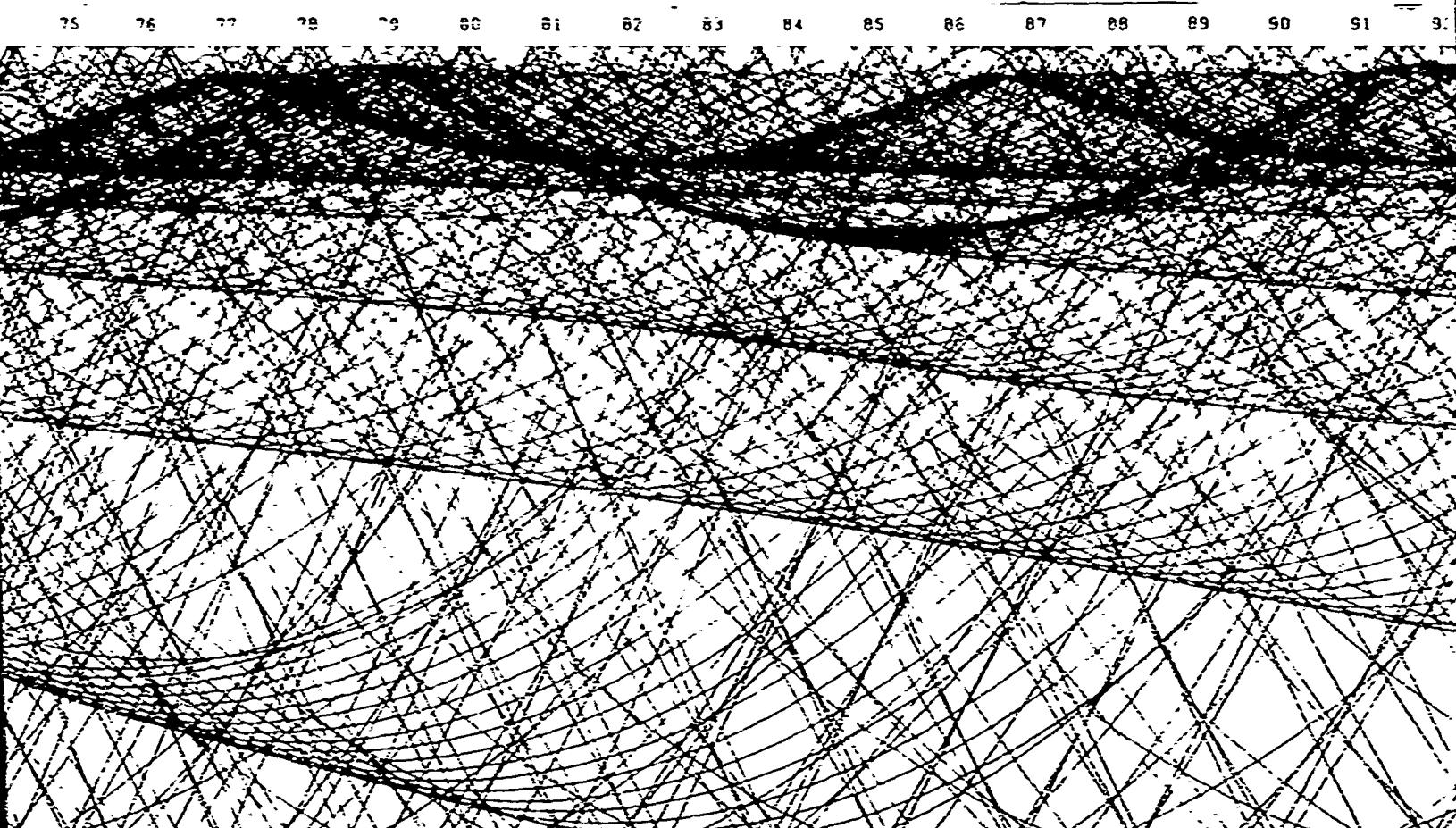
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5

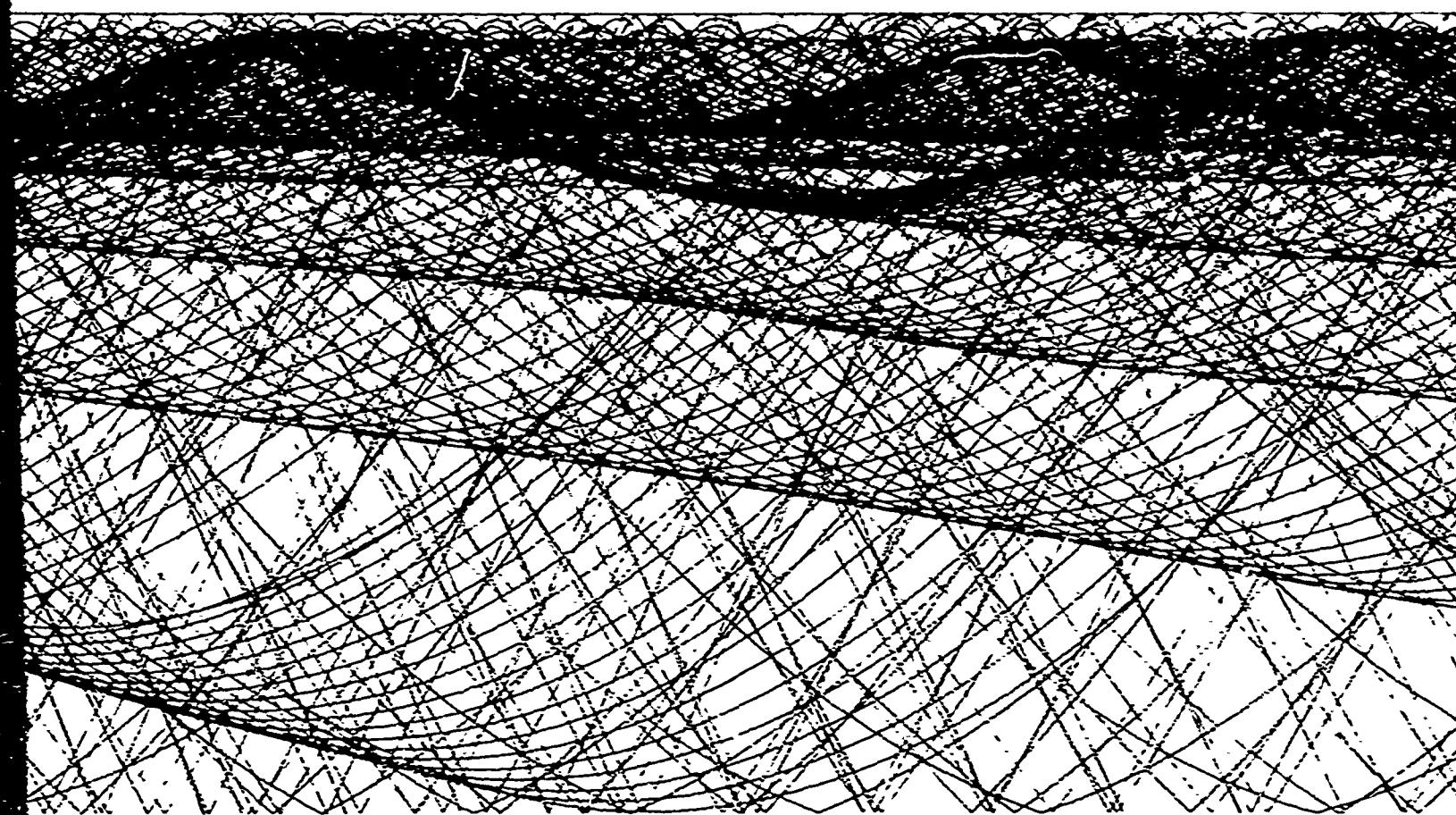
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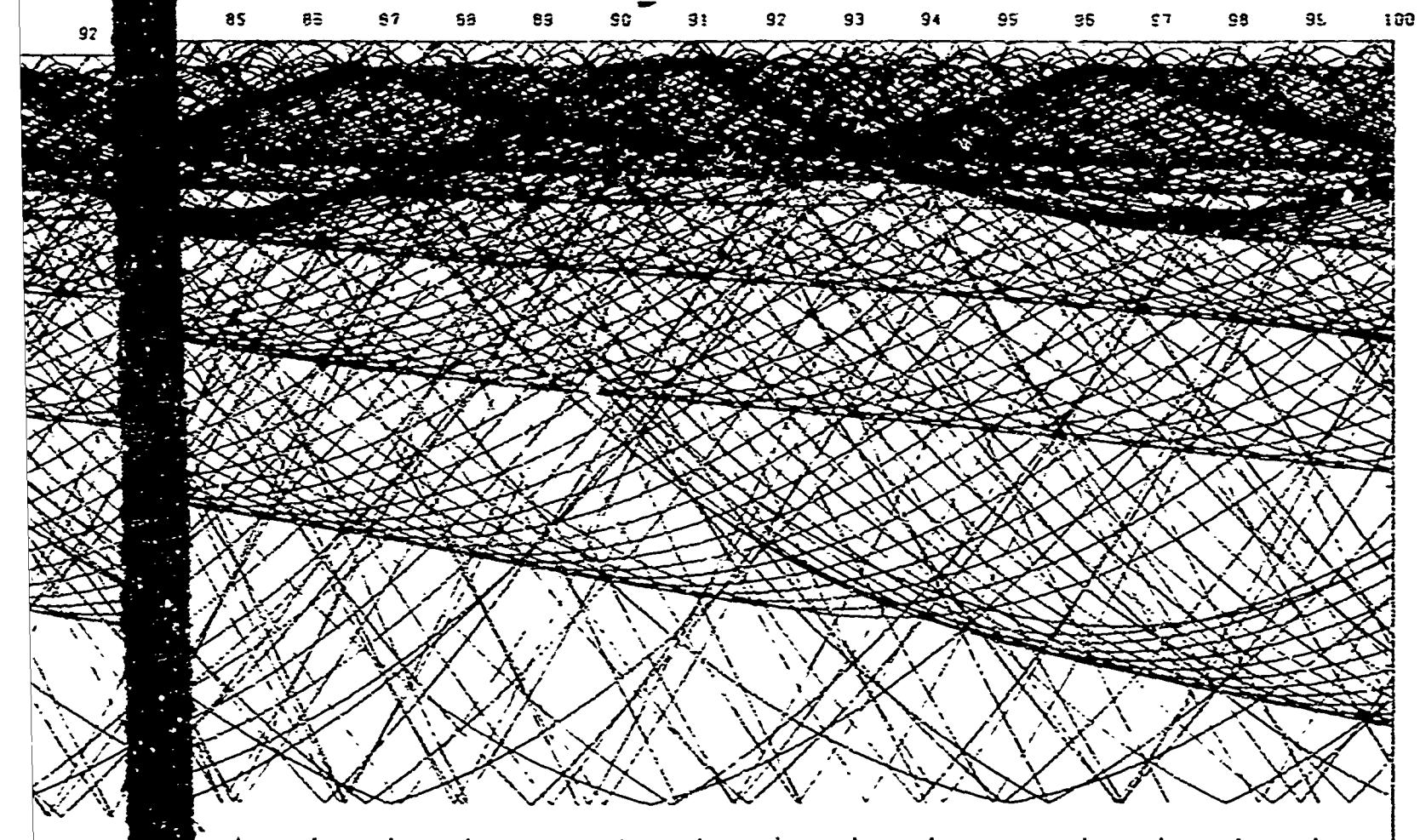
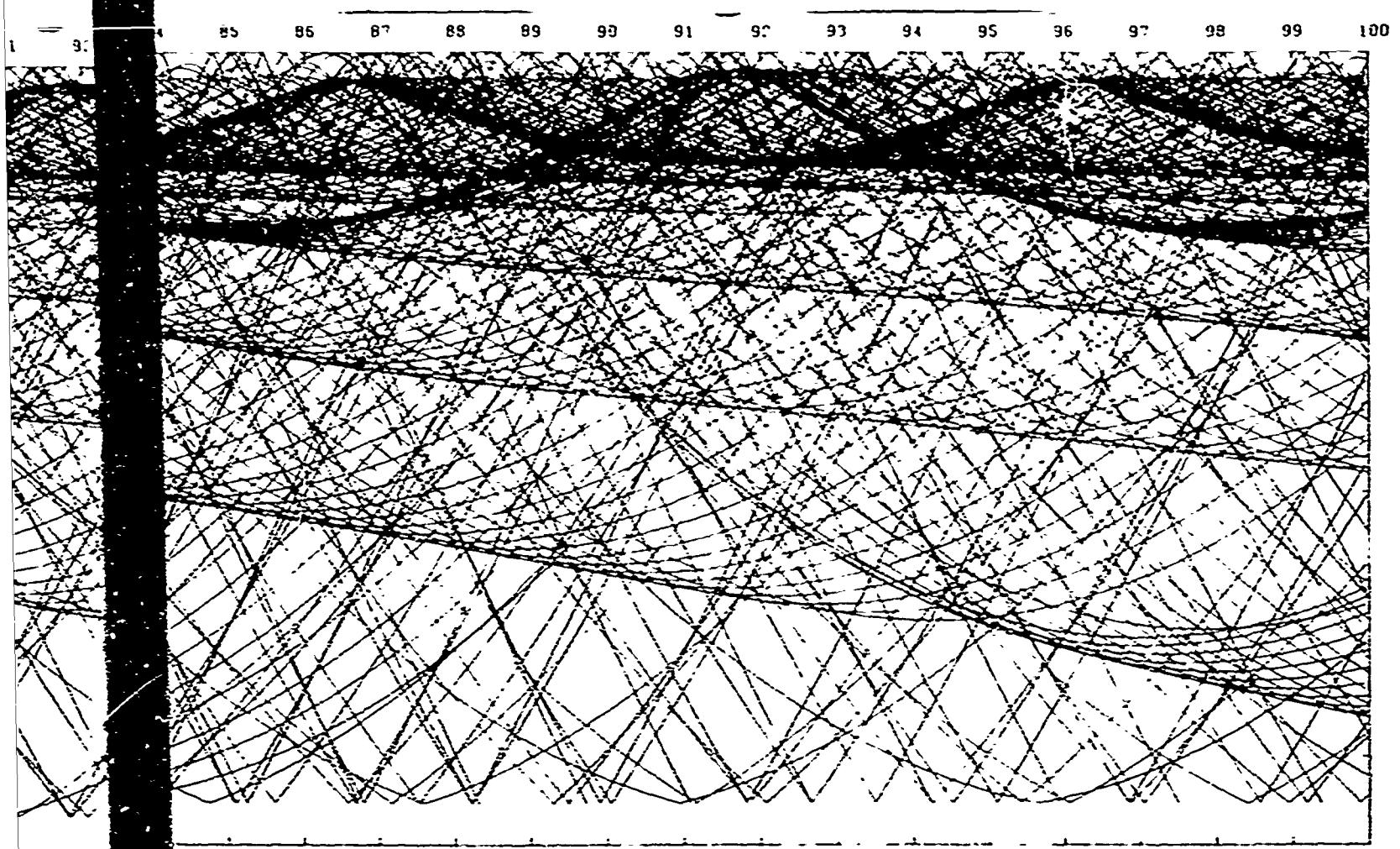
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75 76 77 78 79 80 81 82 83 84 85 86 87 88 89 90 91 92

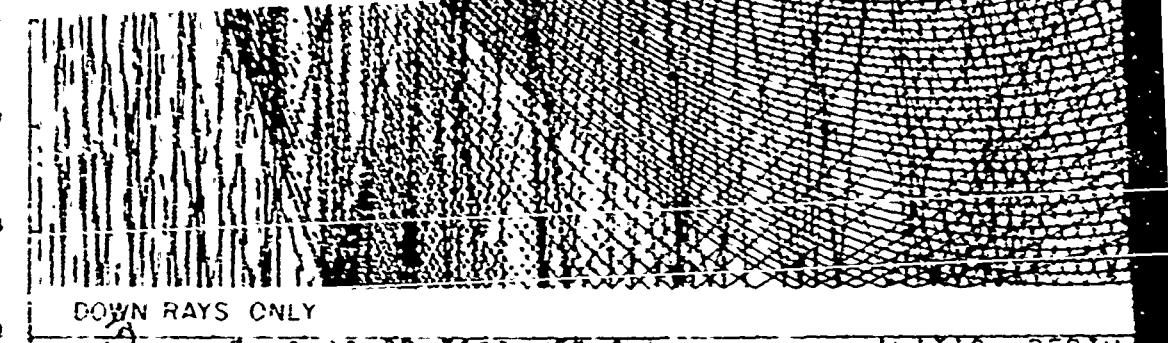


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7

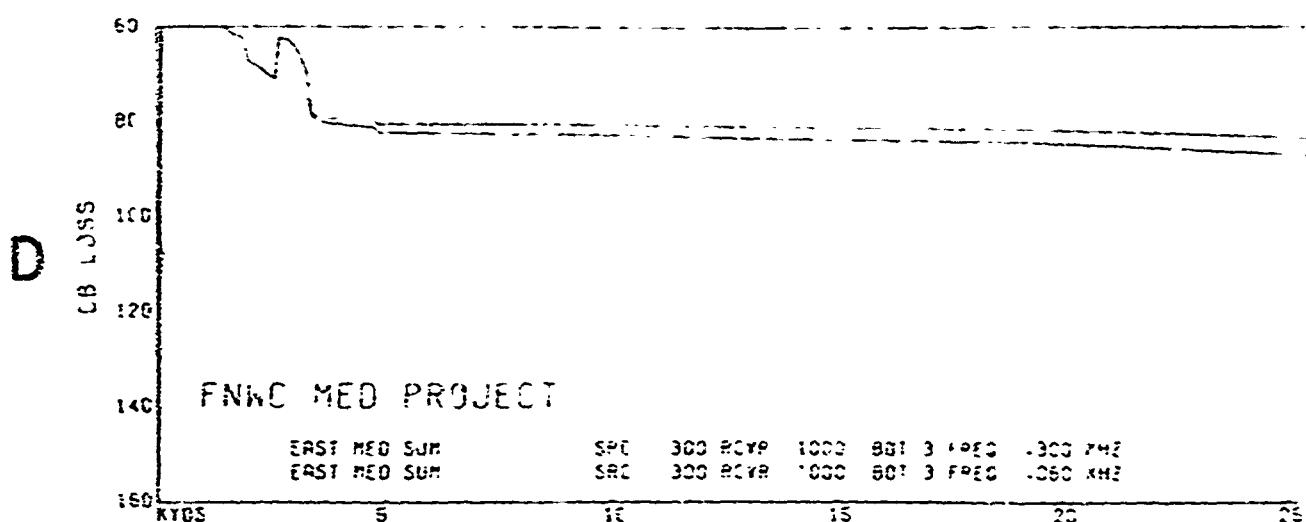
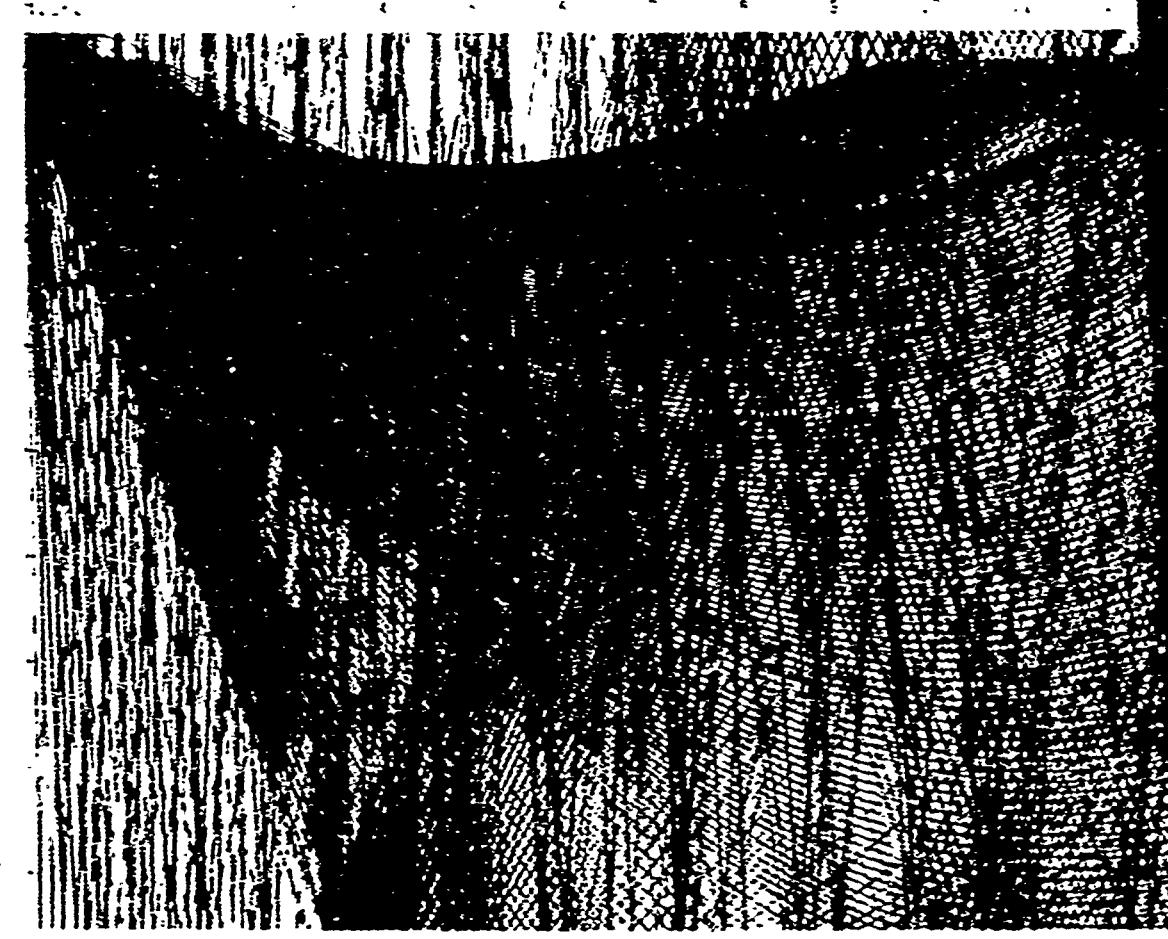


DFT



FNWC 85-87 EAST MED SUM INITIAL DEPTH

Vertical Scale: 1000 ft/min



TOTAL DEPTH . 300 FEET

PTH

.1 .2 .3 .4 .5 .6 .7 .8 .9 .0 .1 .2 .3 .4 .5 .6 .7

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.....

.....

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.....

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.....

.....

M2  
H2

25

30

35

40

45

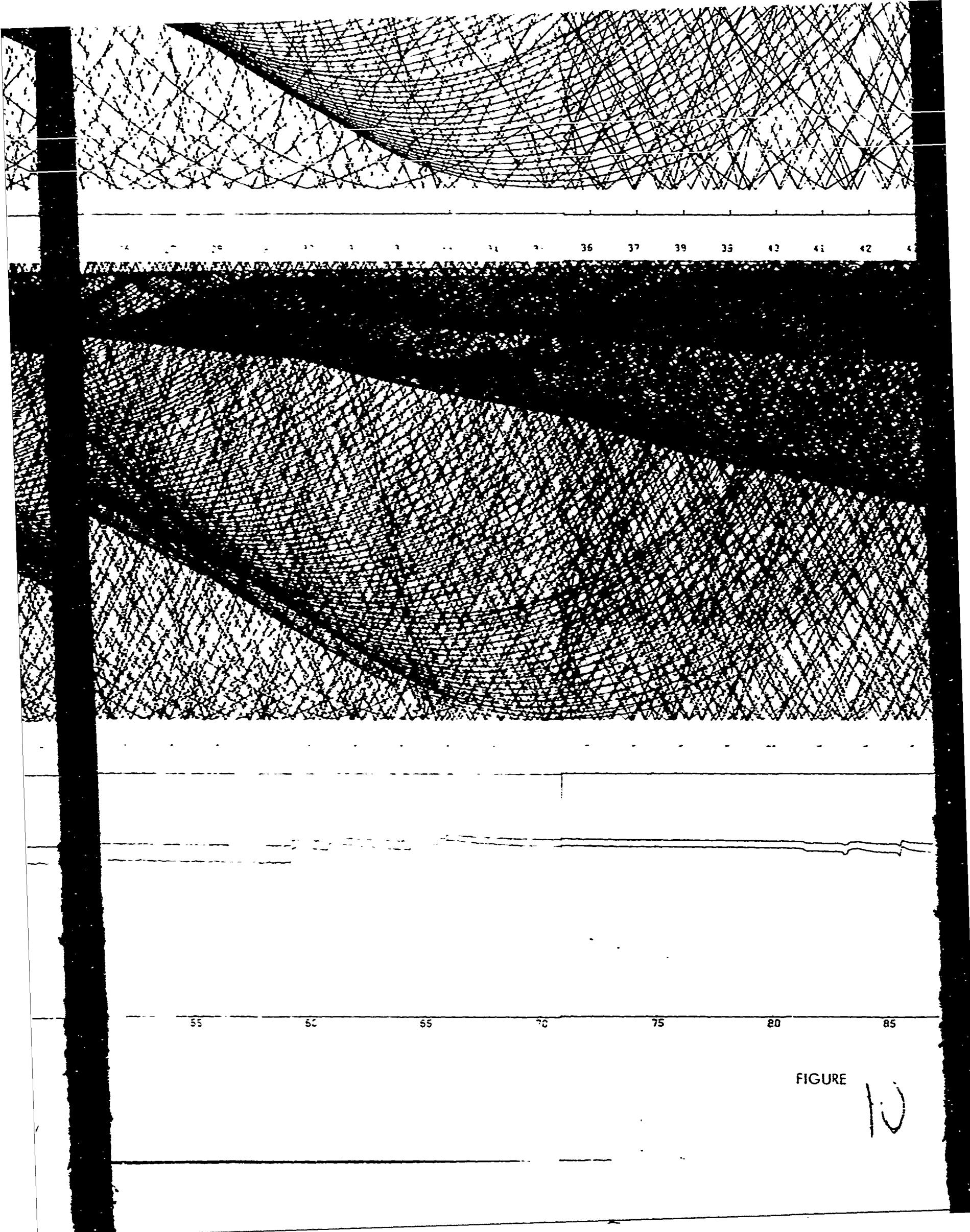
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7

7



FIGURE

10

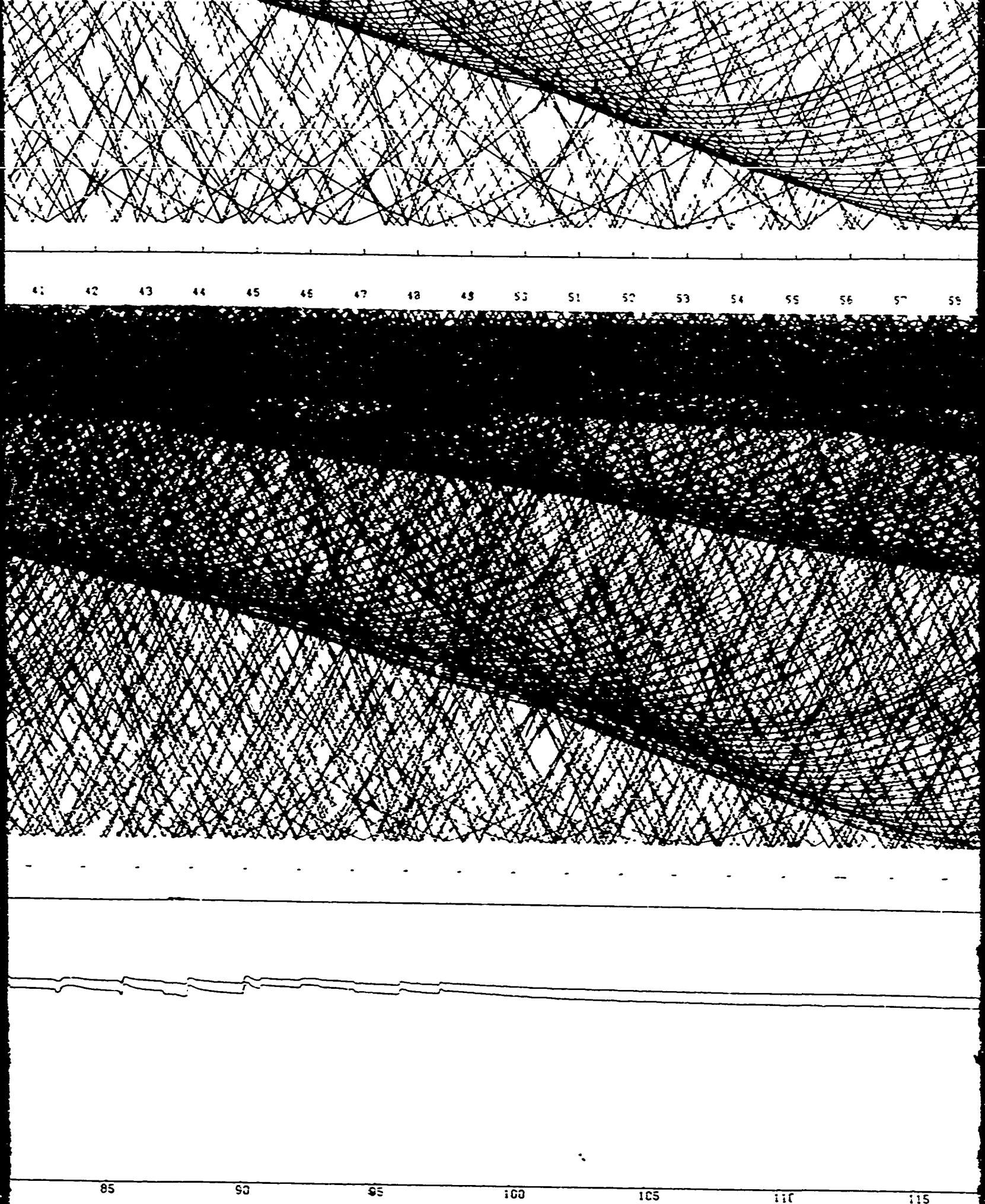
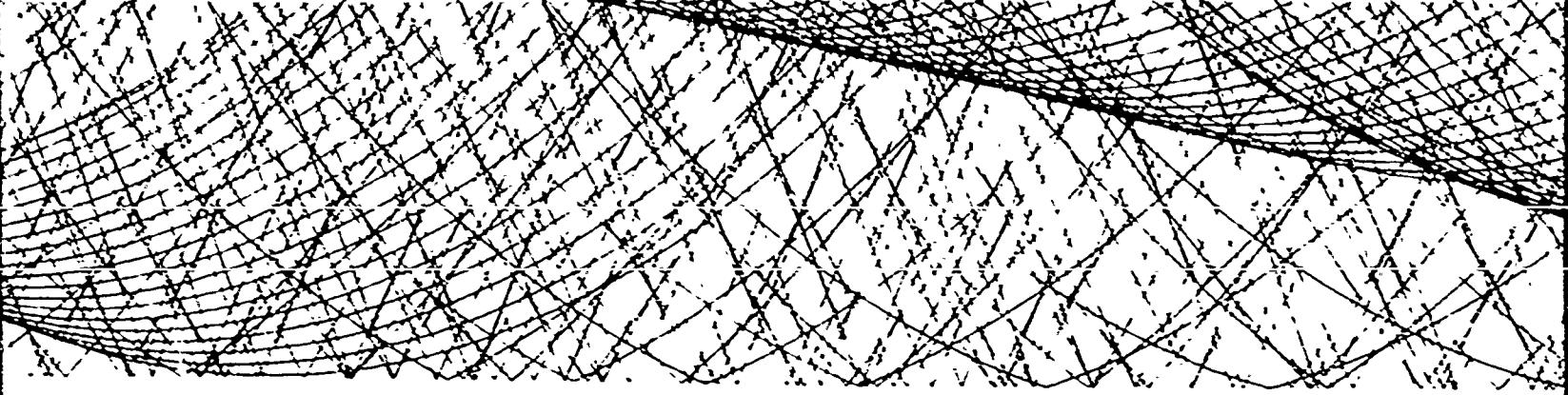


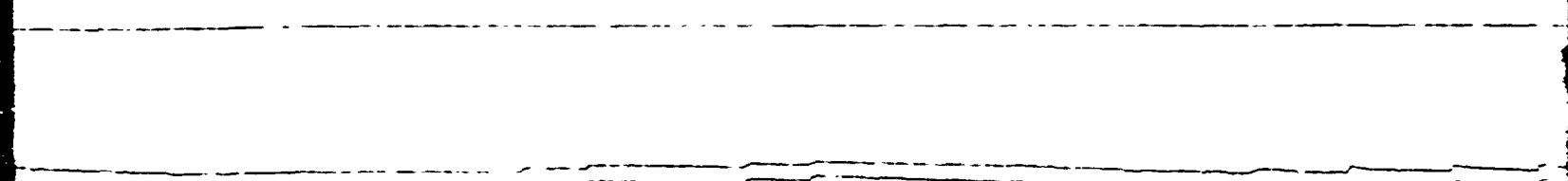
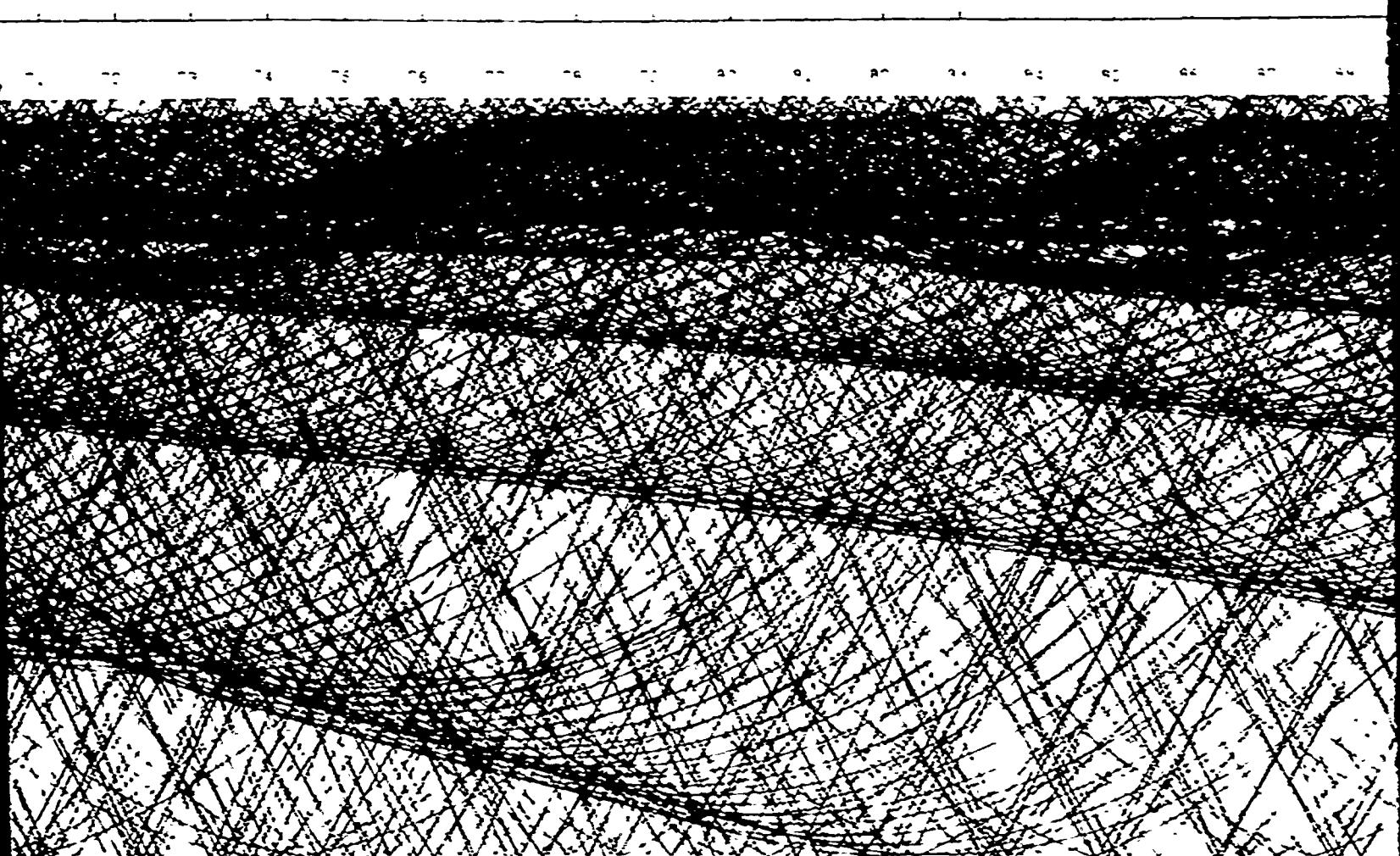
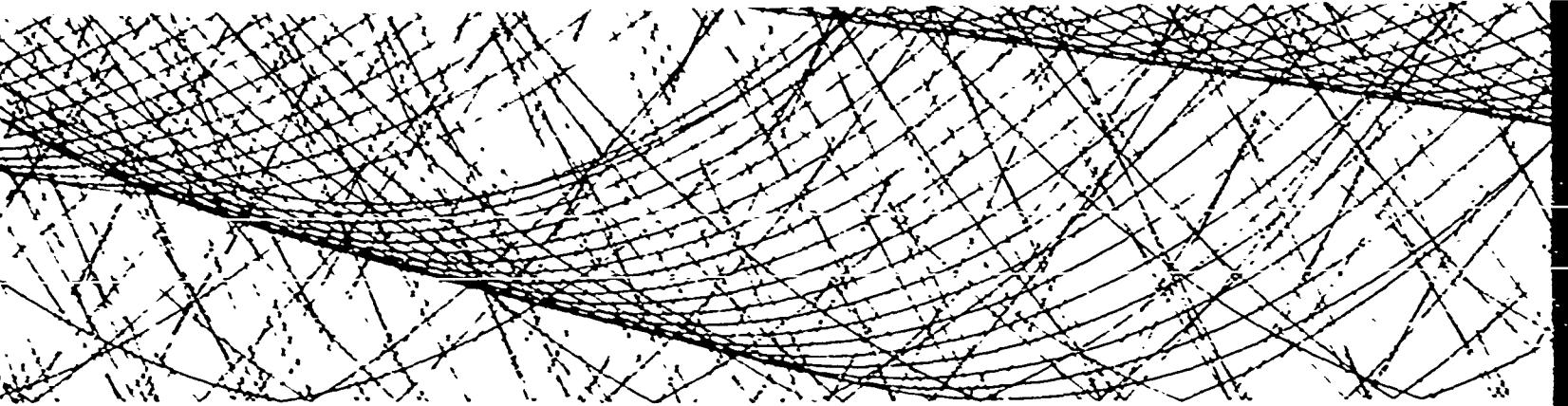
FIGURE 75. RAY PATHS AND TRANSMISSION LOSS -- EASTERN MEDITERRANEAN SUMMER



56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69 70 71 72 73

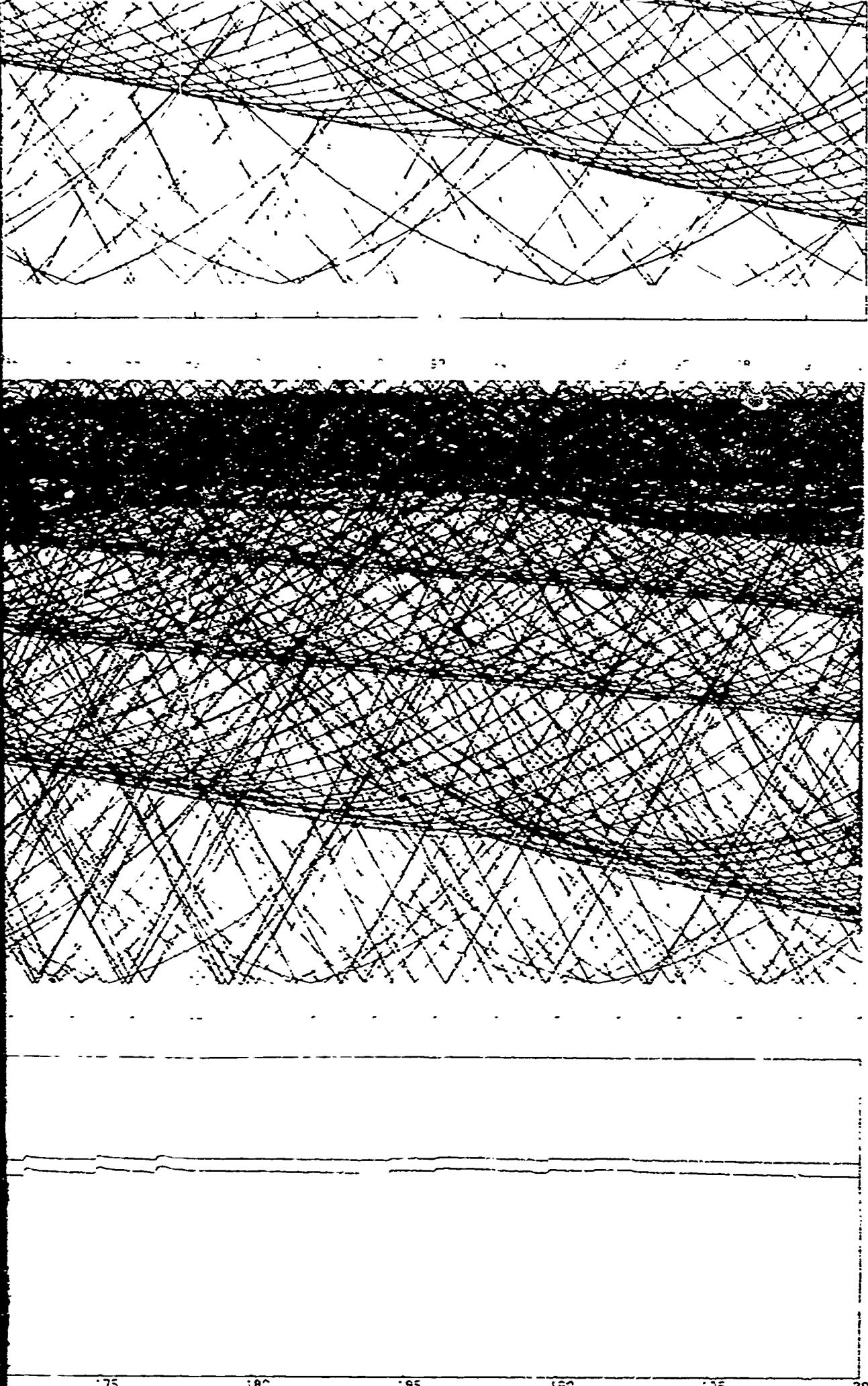


115 120 125 130 135 140 145



145 150 155 160 165 170 175

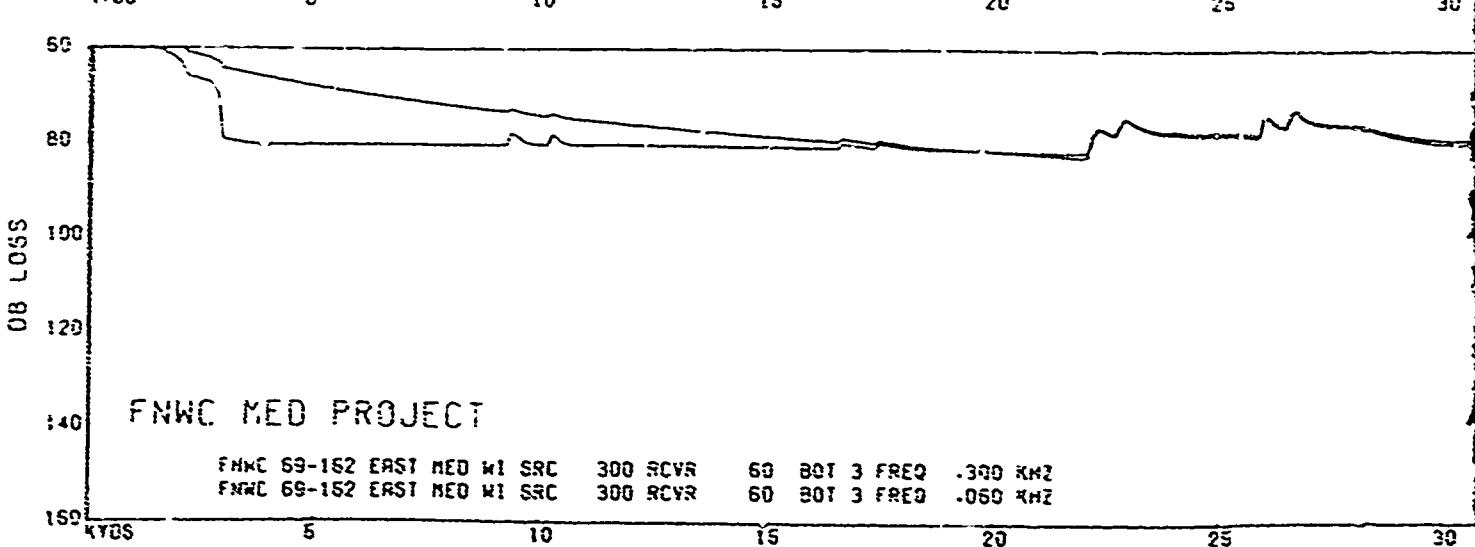
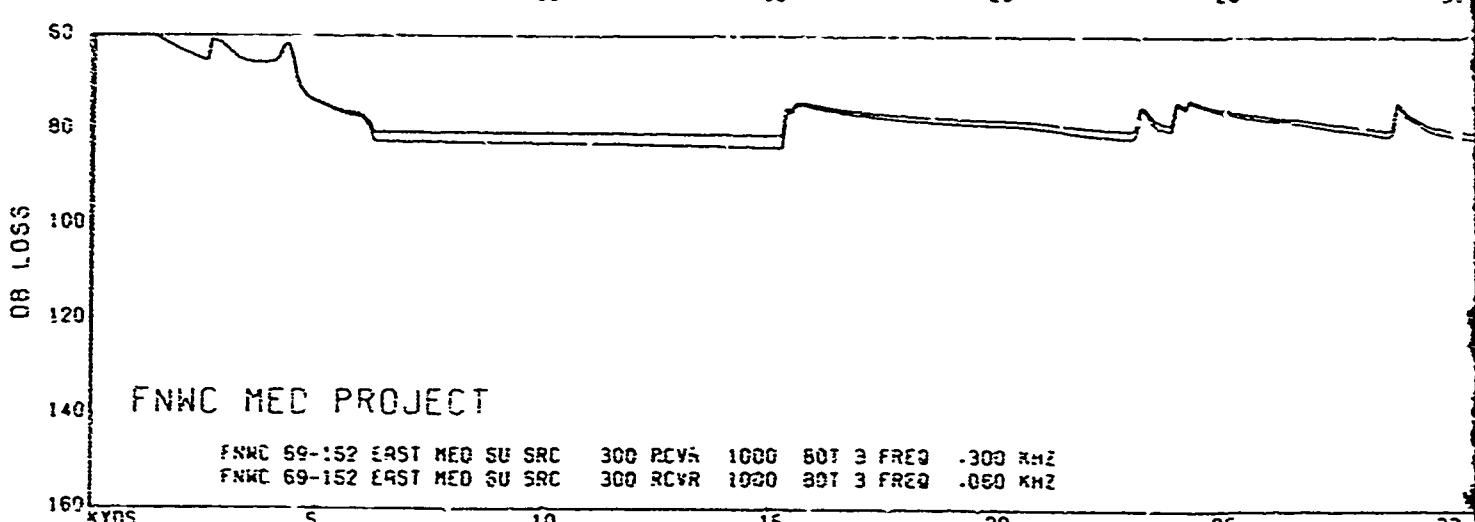
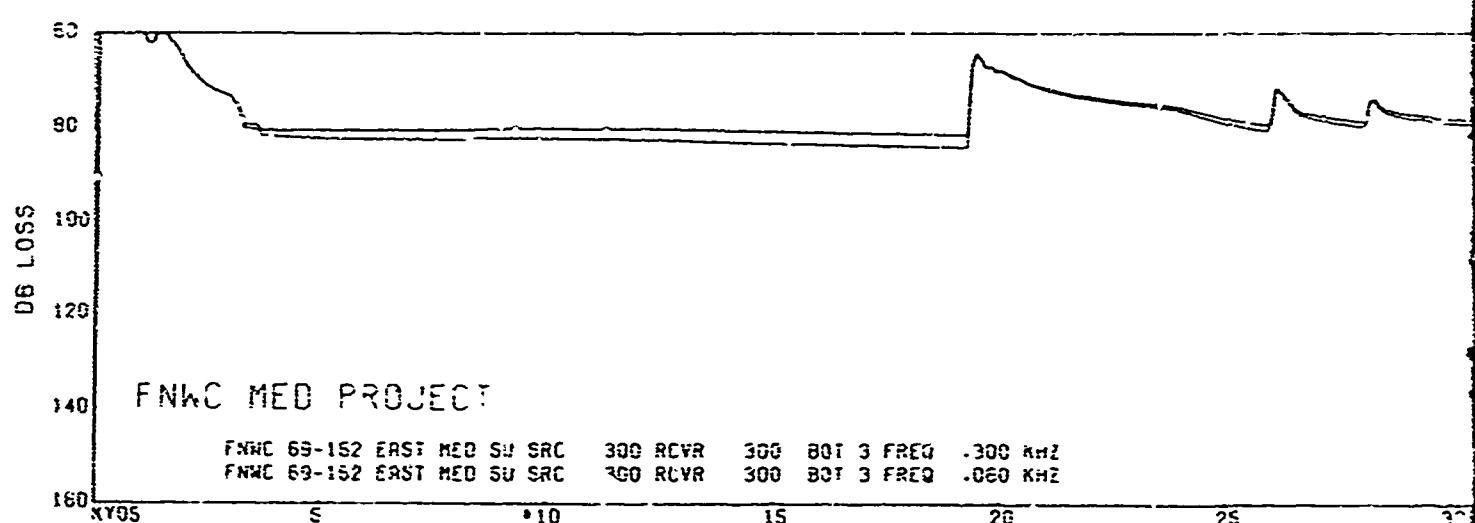
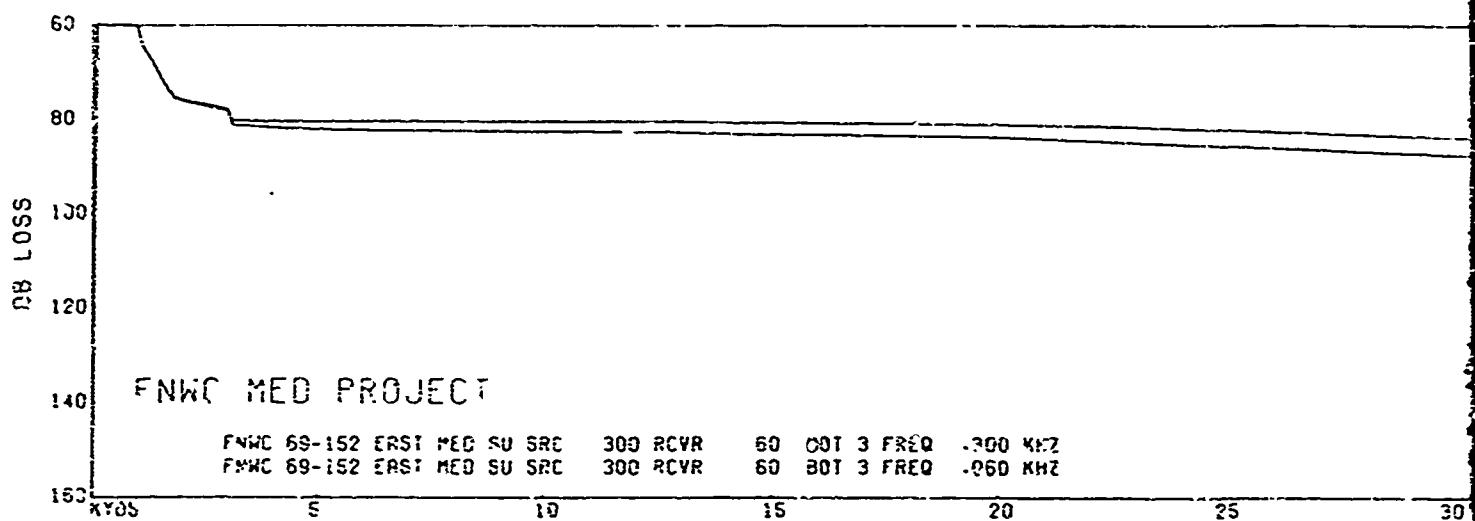
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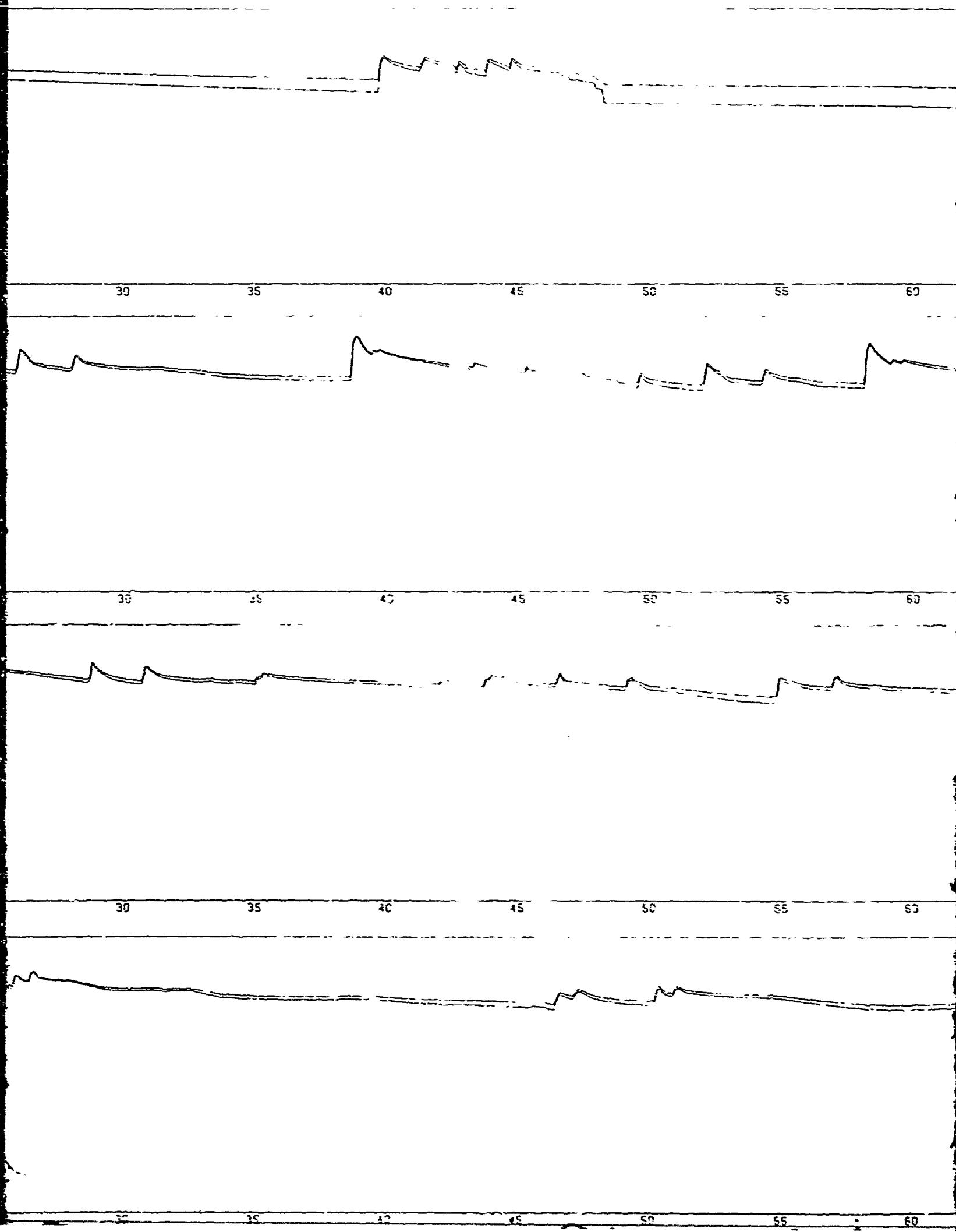
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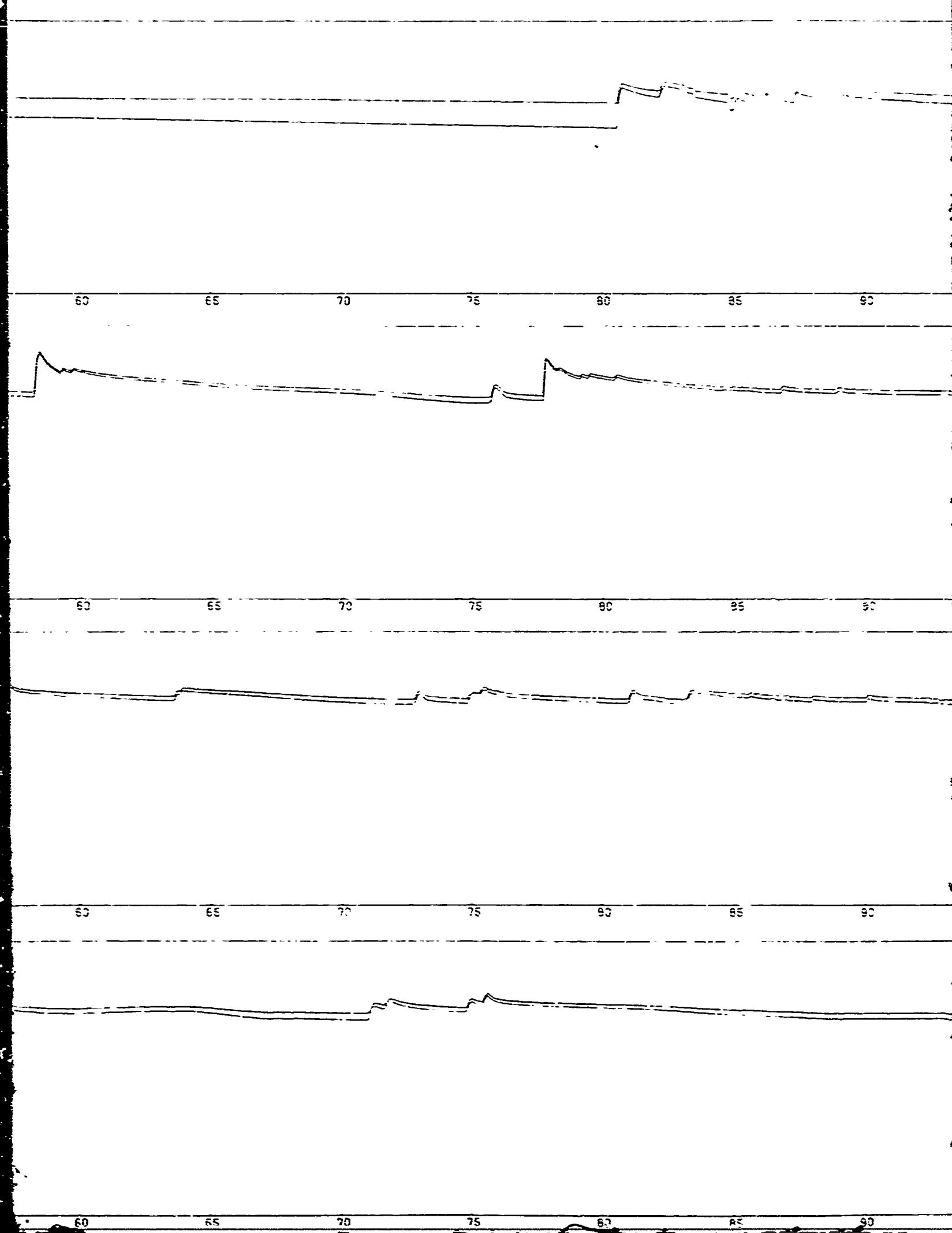
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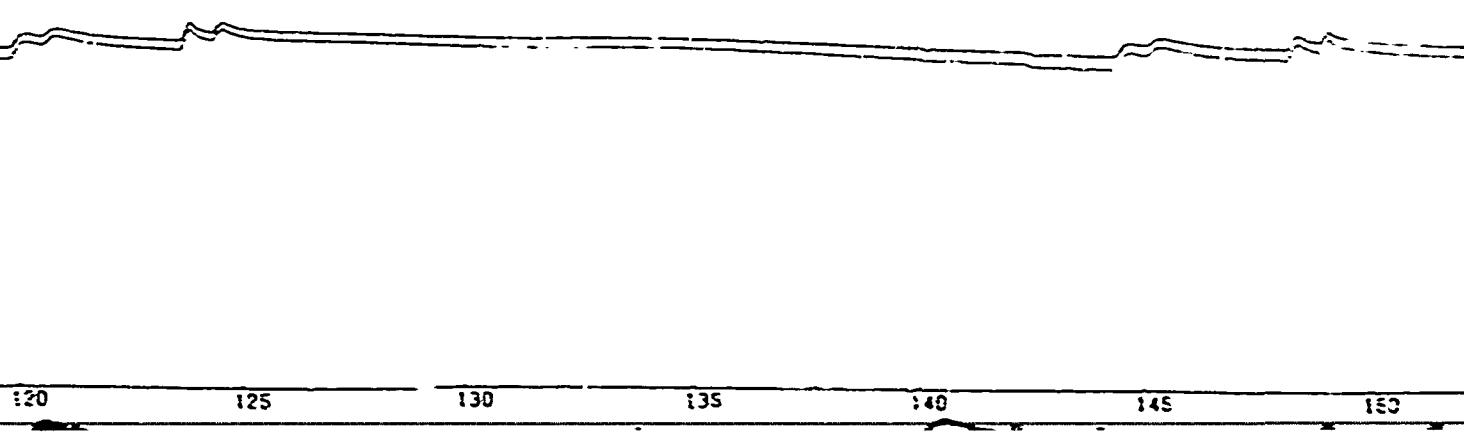
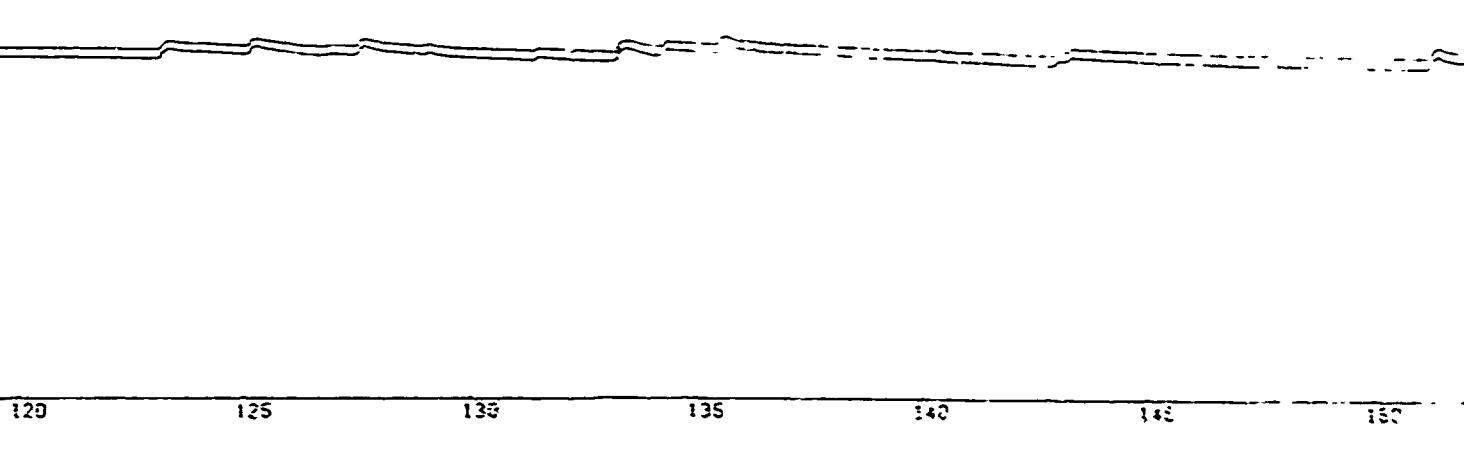
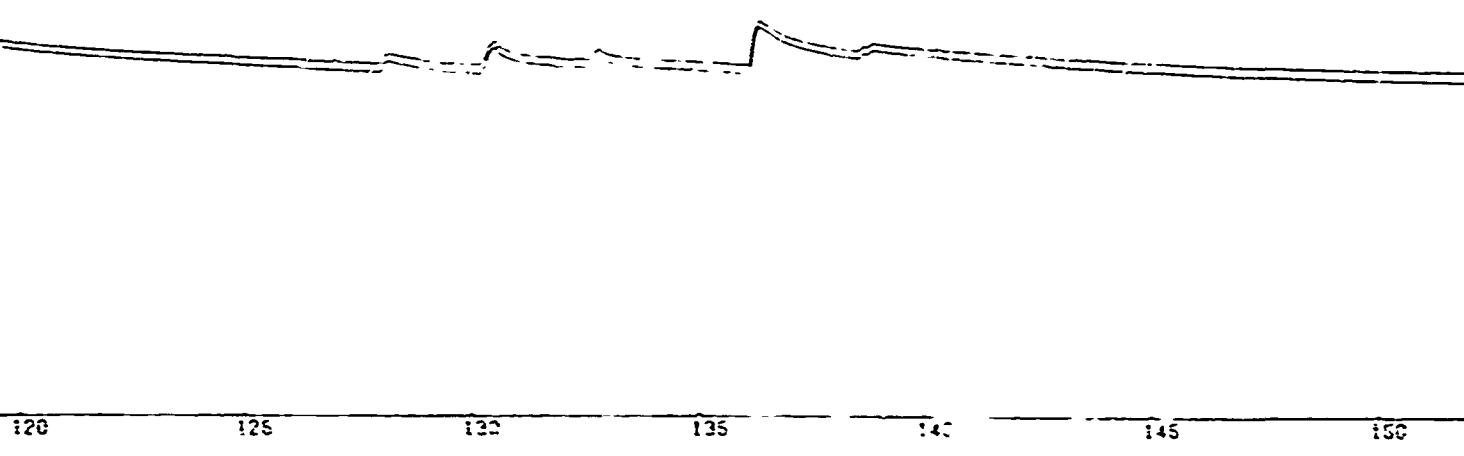
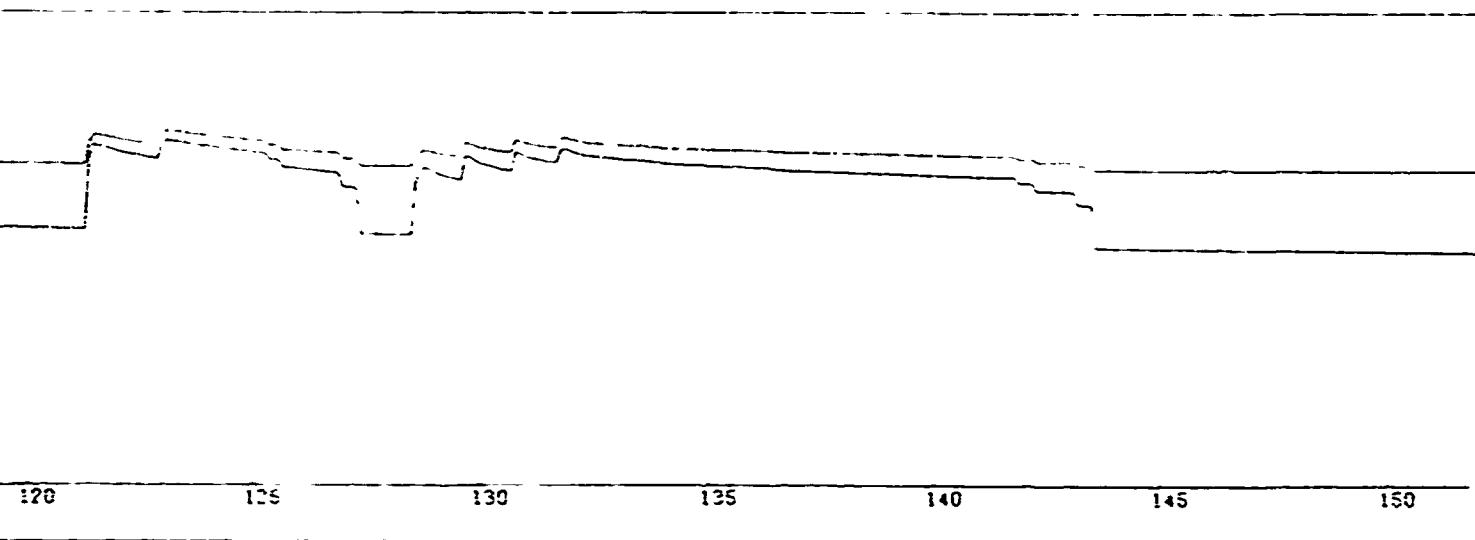
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90 95 100 105 110 115 120

90 95 100 105 110 115 120

90 95 100 105 110 115 120

5



6

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155 160 165 170 175 180 185

155 160 165 170 175 180 185

155 160 165

7

70 175 180 185 190 195 200

185

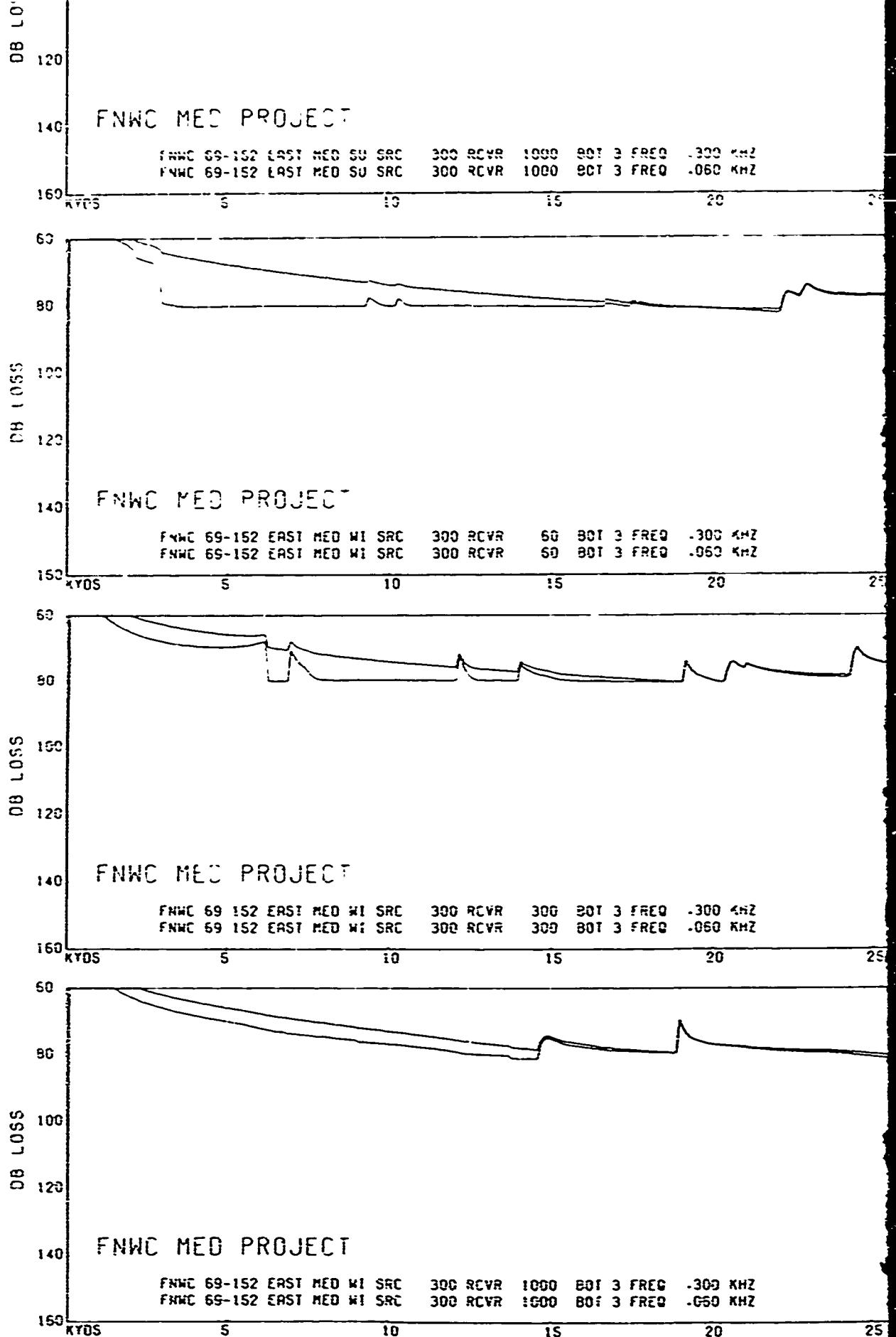
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175 180 185 190 195 200



8

00 KHZ  
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20 25 30 35 40 45 50 55

9

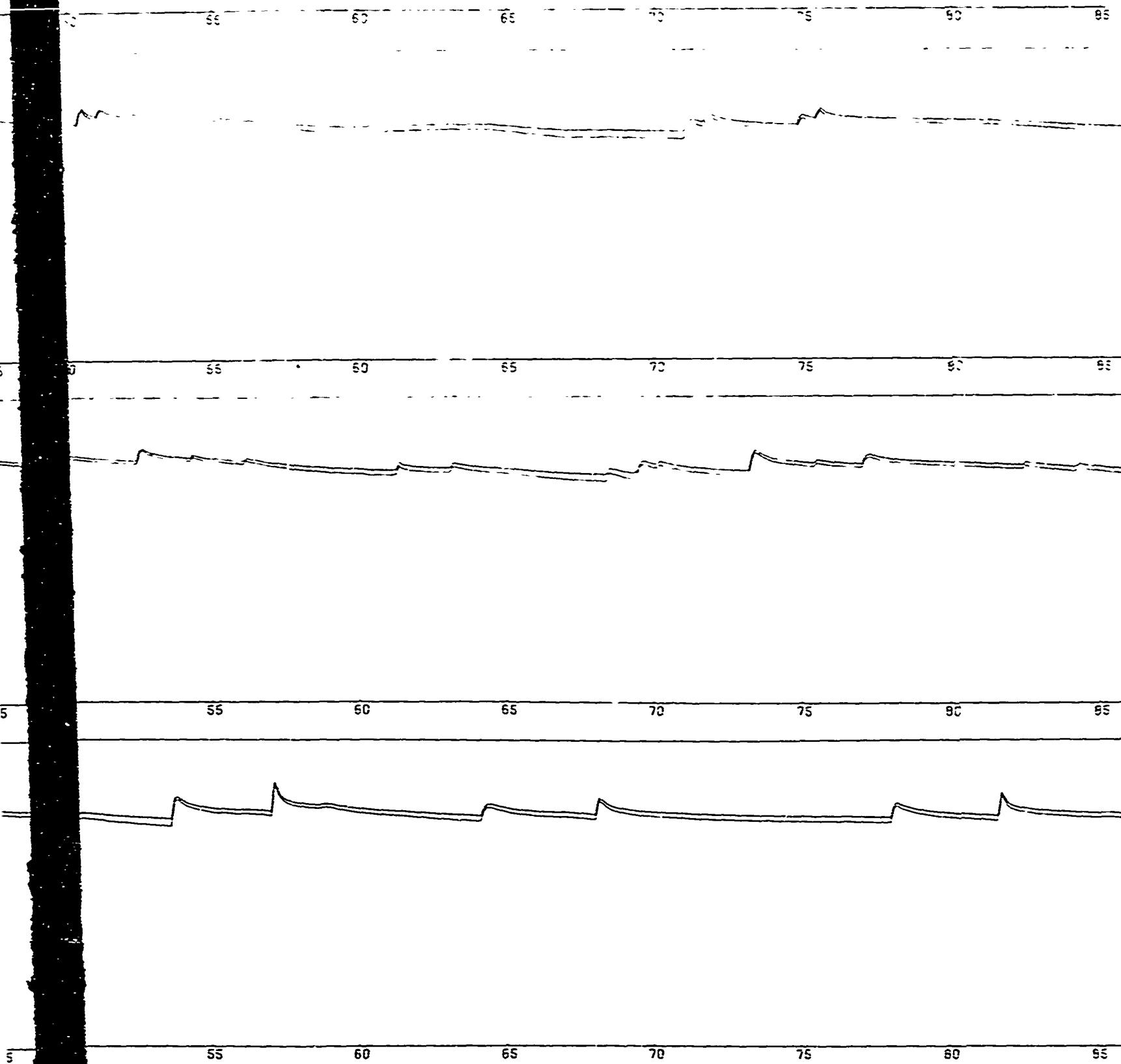


FIGURE 76. TRANSMISSION LOSS

10

85 90 95 100 105 110 115

85 90 95 100 105 110 115

85 90 95 100 105 110 115

85 90 95 100 105 110 115

MISSION LOSS -- EASTERN MEDITERRANEAN SUMMER AND WINTER

115

120

125

130

135

140

145

115

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145 150 155 160 165 170 175

145 150 155 160 165 170 175

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145 150 155 160 165 170 175

13

175 180 185 190 195 200

175 180 185 190 195 200

175 180 185 190 195 200

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14

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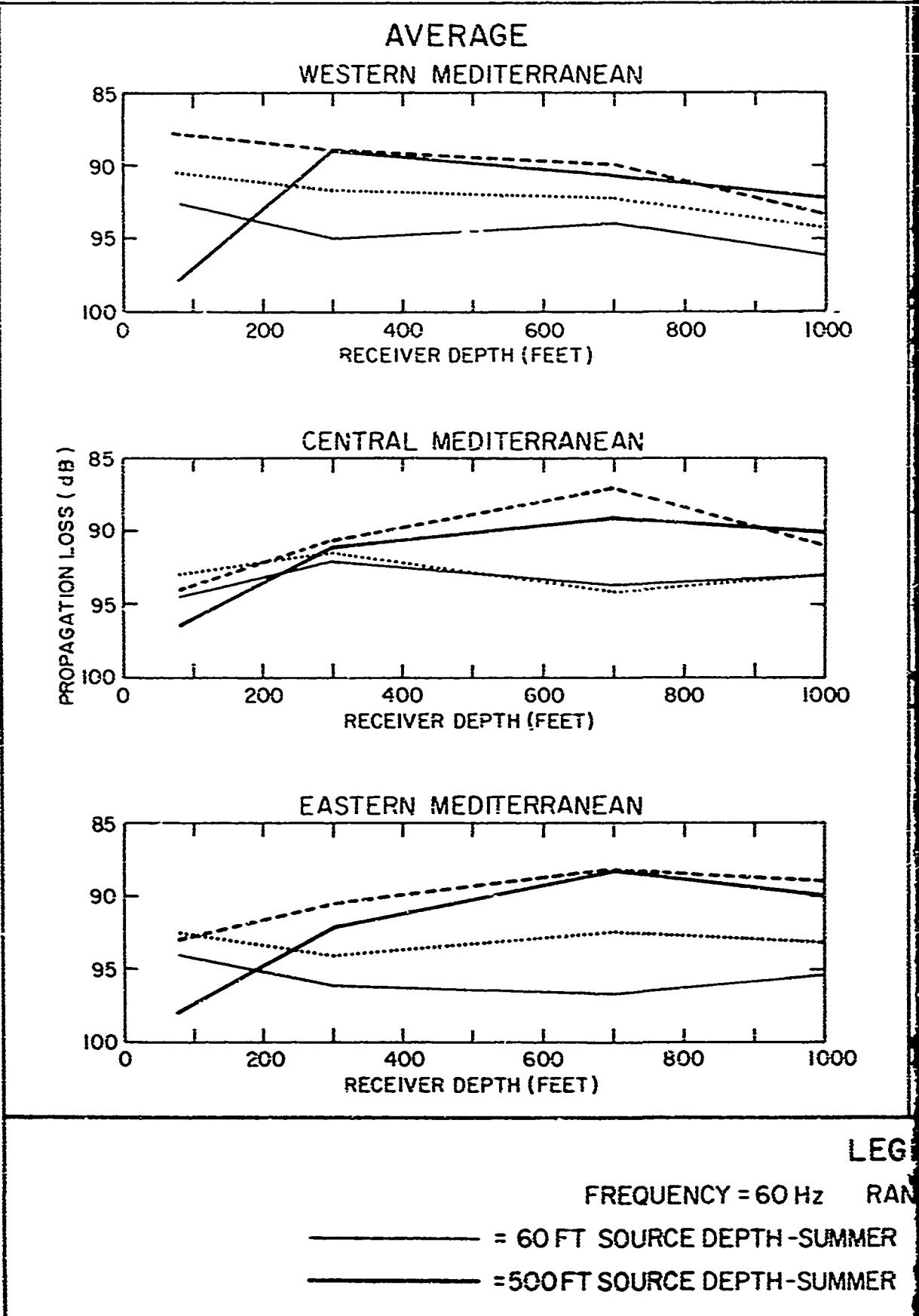
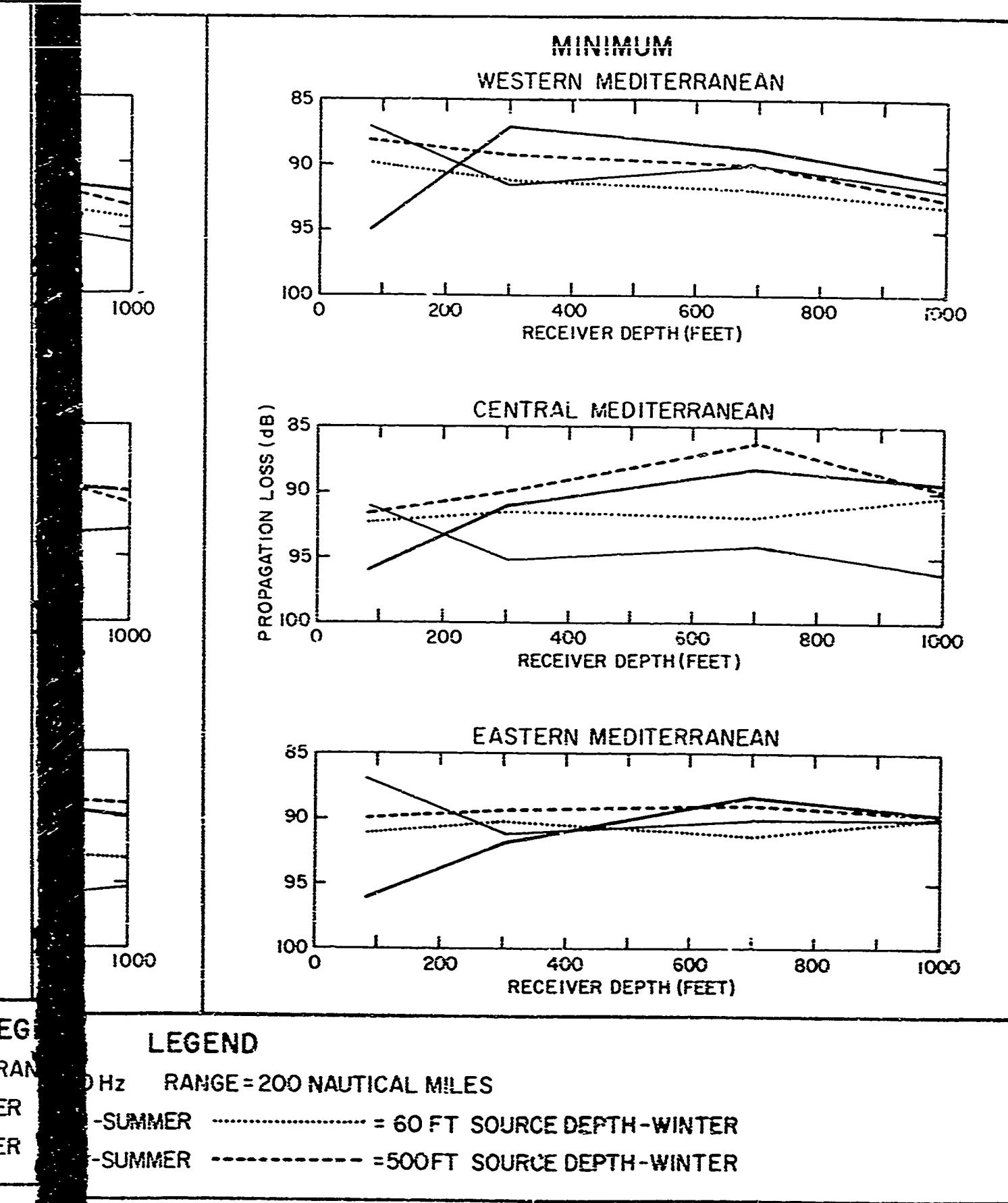


FIGURE 77. CALCULATED AVERAGE AND MINIMUM PROPAGATION LOSS -- W



DSS - WE ON LOSS -- WEST, CENTRAL AND EASTERN MEDITERRANEAN SEA

FIGURE 77. AVERAGE AND MINIMUM PROPAGATION LOSS

CONFIDENTIAL

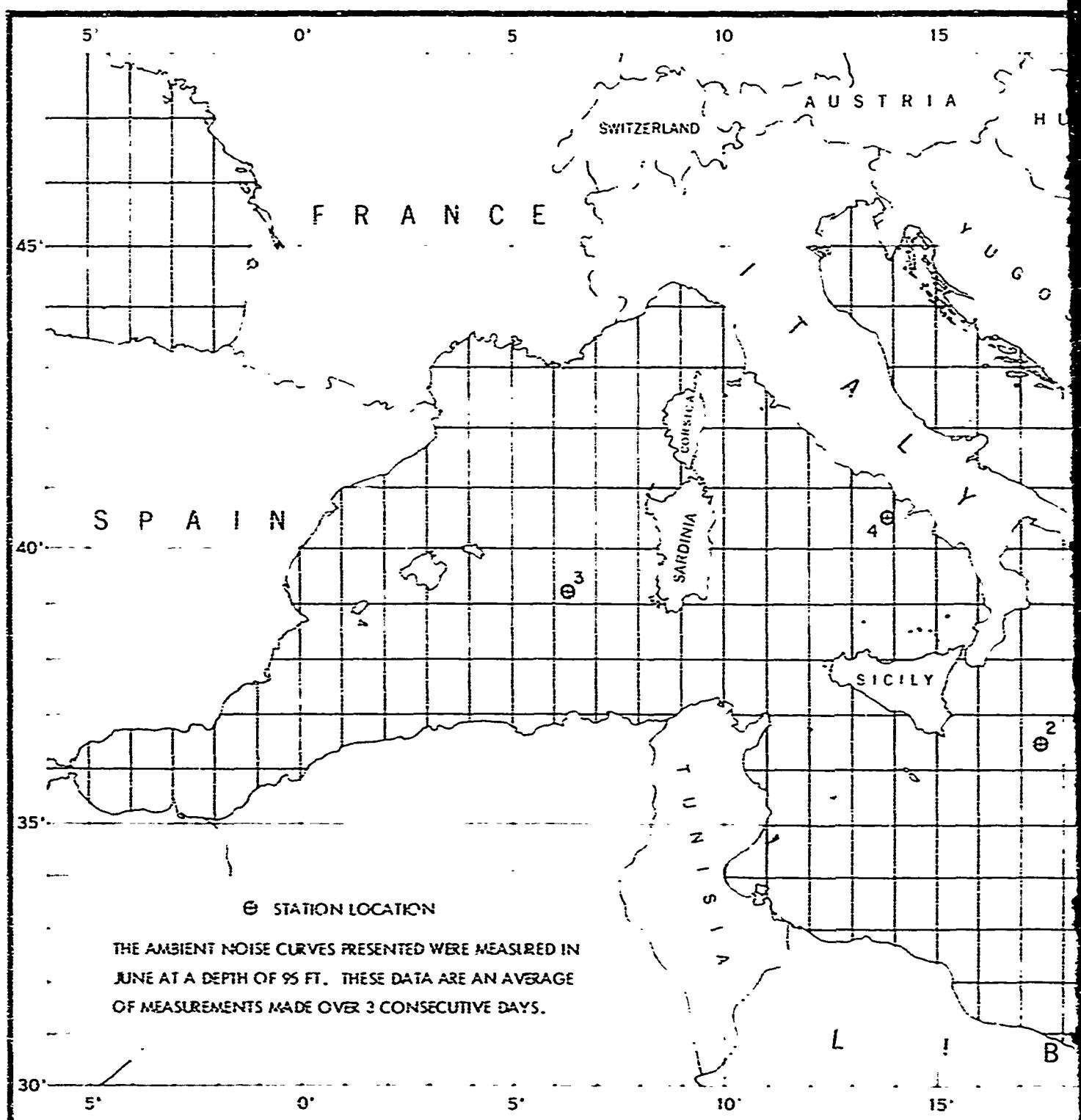
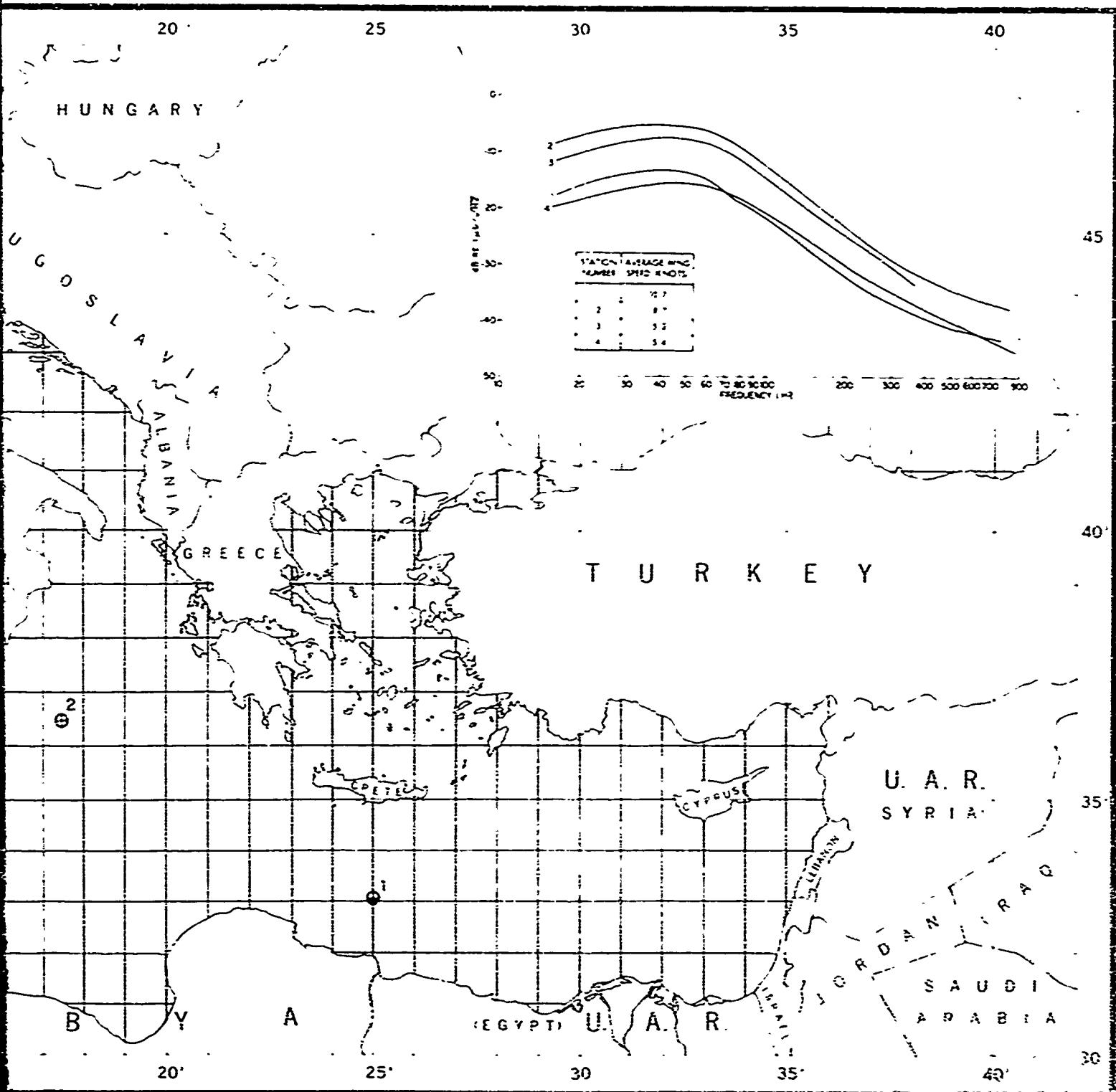


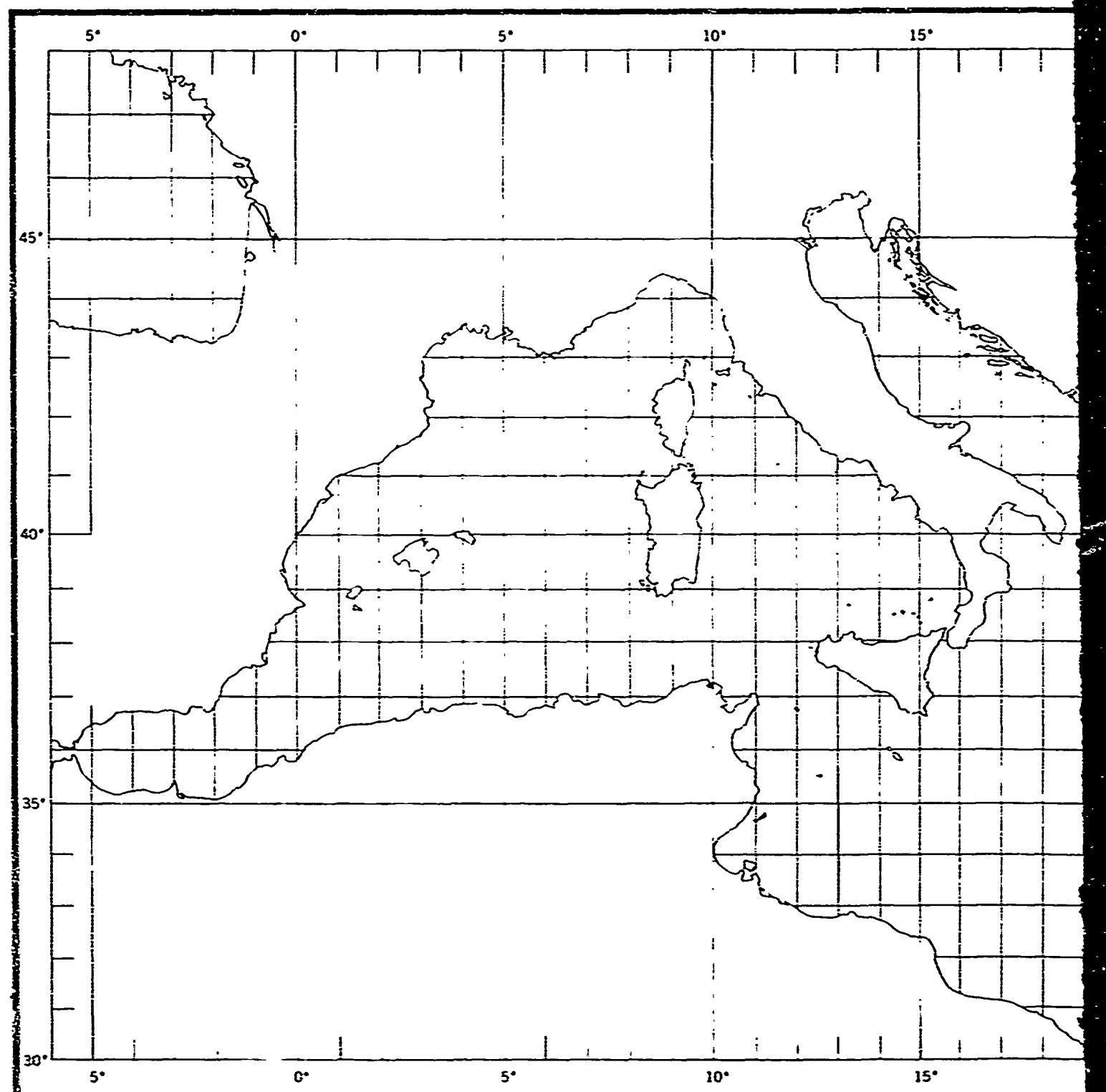
FIGURE 78. AMBIENT NOISE I

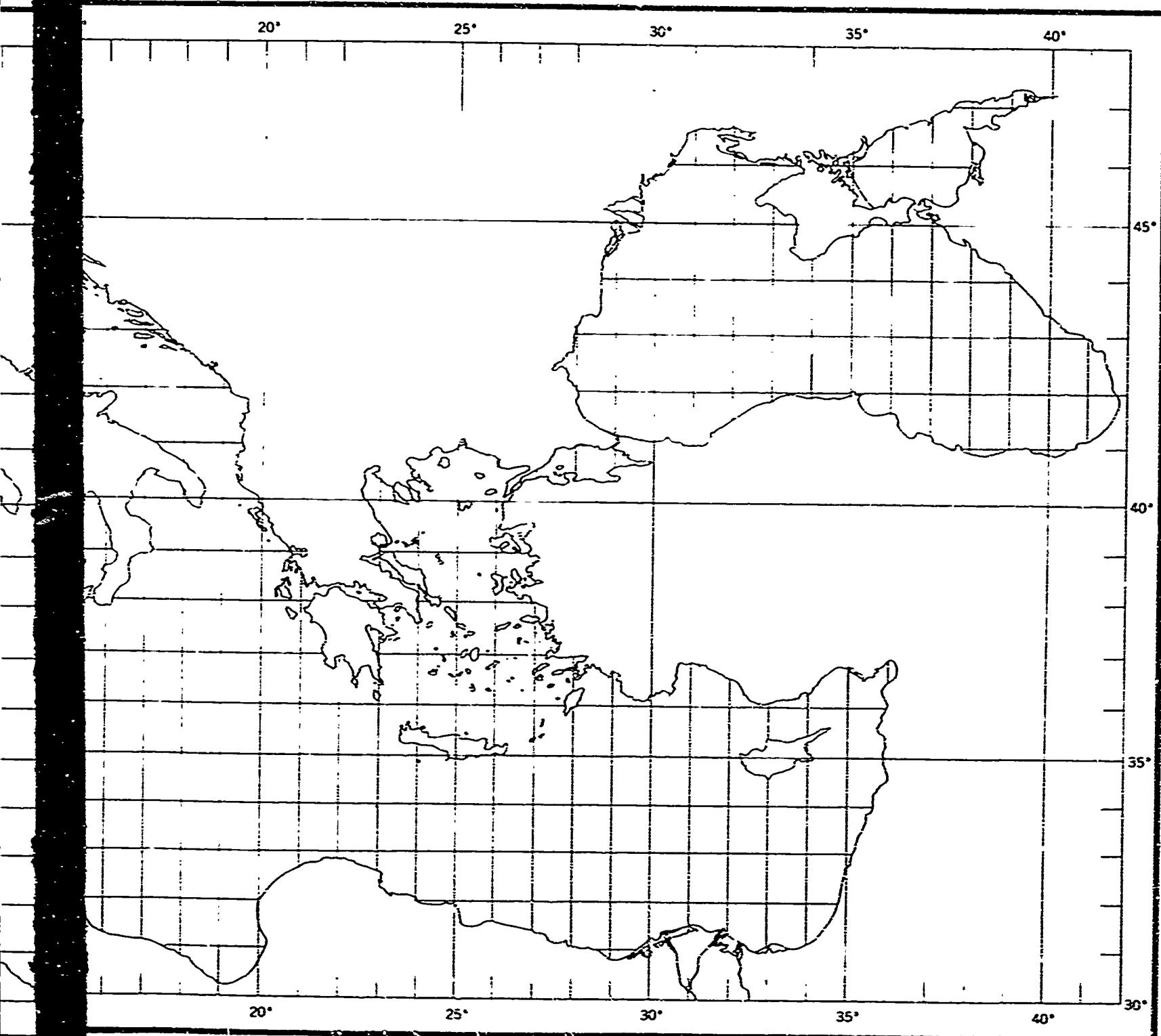


AMBIENT NOISE IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA

FIGURE 78. AMBIENT NOISE

2





BLANK BASE CHARTS

2



**DEPARTMENT OF THE NAVY**

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**Ref: (a) SECNAVINST 5510.36**

**Encl: (1) List of DECLASSIFIED LRAPP Documents**

1. In accordance with reference (a), a declassification review has been conducted on a number of classified LRAPP documents.
2. The LRAPP documents listed in enclosure (1) have been downgraded to UNCLASSIFIED and have been approved for public release. These documents should be remarked as follows:

Classification changed to UNCLASSIFIED by authority of the Chief of Naval Operations (N772) letter N772A/6U875630, 20 January 2006.

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## Declassified LRAPP Documents

Report Number	Personal Author	Title	Publication Source (Originator)	Pub. Date	Current Availability	Class.
HIR167; CU-195-69-ONR-266-PHYS	Hardy, W. A.	PROJECT APTERYX: FINAL REPORT (U) (HUDSON LABORATORIES OPERATION 245)	Columbia Univ./ Hudson Labs	690301	NS; ND	C
MCR002	Unavailable	MEDITERRANEAN SEA ENVIRONMENTAL ATLAS FOR ITASS (U)	Maury Center for Ocean Science	691001	NS; ND	C
NUSCNL3018	Unavailable	TECHNICAL PLAN FOR IMPLANTMENT OF THE TEST BED ARRAY FOR THE LONG RANGE ACOUSTIC PROPAGATION PROGRAM (LRAPP) (U)	Naval Underwater Systems Center	700810	NS; ND	C
Project469 149429855R700	Balaban, M. M.	LRAPP TEST BED ARRAY CABLE FAILURE ANALYSIS (U)	TRW Systems Group	710730	AD0516710; NS; ND	C
BKDCN667	Bernard, P. G., et al.	TECHNICAL DIAGNOSTIC ANALYSIS OF LRAPP TEST BED PROGRAM FAILURE (U)	B-K Dynamics, Inc.	710802	AD0516656; NS; ND	C
NUSCPUB6002	Unavailable	IOMED EXPERIMENT. PRELIMINARY DATA REPORT (U)	Naval Underwater Systems Center	711206	NS; ND	C
ADL ED 15316; ADL 116-672	Unavailable	SQUARE DEAL EXERCISE PLAN (U)	Arthur D. Little, Inc.	720301	ND	C
ADLR4560372	Sullivan, D. L., et al.	PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS OF ACODAC MEASUREMENTS NEAR MADEIRA ON 13-16 OCTOBER 1971 (U)	Arthur D. Little, Inc.	720331	AD0595812; NS; ND	C
MCR07	Caul, R. D., et al.	IOMEDEX SYNOPSIS ON ENVIRONMENTAL ACOUSTIC EXERCISE IN THE IONIAN BASIN OF THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA NOVEMBER 1971.	Maury Center for Ocean Science	720401	NS; ND	C
P1243	Unavailable	FINAL REPORT ACOUSTIC TEST ARRAY (U)	Raytheon Co. ,	720831	AD0522104; NS; ND	C
Unavailable	Unavailable	CHART-BATHYMETRIC-SQUARE DEAL EXERCISE (U)	Naval Oceanographic Office	730601	AU	C
TM SA23-C275-73	Wilcox, J. D.	A DESCRIPTION OF THE LRAPP ATLANTIC TEST BED ARRAY FOR MOTION PREDICTION STUDIES (U)	Naval Underwater Systems Center	731212	ND	C
Unavailable	Unavailable	CHURCH ANCHOR AMBIENT NOISE REPORT (U)	Texas Instruments, Inc.	740501	AU	C
Unavailable	Hoffman, J., et al.	CHURCH ANCHOR CW PROPAGATION LOSS AND SIGNAL EXCESS REPORT(U)	Texas Instruments, Inc.	740701	AU; ND	C
MCR104	Unavailable	MEDITERRANEAN ENVIRONMENTAL ACOUSTIC SUMMARY (U)	Maury Center for Ocean Science	740701	NS; ND	C
OSTP-39	Romain, N. E.	OSTP-39 NER: ANALYSIS OF DATA FROM A FIELD TRIAL OF THE LAMBDA ARRAY (U)	Westinghouse Electric Corp. and Bell Laboratories	740930	ND	C
MC-103	Unavailable	MEDITERRANEAN ENVIRONMENTAL ACOUSTIC DATA CATALOG (U)	Office of Naval Research	750501	ND	C
Unavailable	Unavailable	SQUARE DEAL SUS TRANSMISSION LOSS (U)	Arthur D. Little, Inc.	750725	AU	C